PHILIPPINE HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

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More Documents on the Japanese Occupation

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The PHA Board of Governors with President and Mrs Marcos in his office at Malacañang Palace on August 7, 1967. The Board called on the President to ask him to create a body to take charge of the observance of the centenary of General Emilio Aguinaldo. The President issued accordingly Executive Order no. 92, dated October 23, 1967, creating the General Emilio Aguinaldo National Centennial Commission. (See p. 471 of this issue of the HB)

History and National Progress*

Ferdinand E. Marcos

I AM YOUNG ENOUGH and human enough to appreciate occasions like this. I am happy to be here. I cut short my rest in order to catch up with this appointment.

As you know, I have just come from Leyte; and I hurried over to be able to appear before you.

When Mrs. Marcos asked me why I was hurrying back to Manila, I laughingly answered that it was a very happy occasion that I was hurrying back to because, I said, I was hurrying to deliver a speech or a lecture to men and women who used to lecture and speak to me before.

You cannot understand perhaps the paradox of the situation. Professor Fabella, for instance, the president emeritus, used to make me study far into the late late hours. He used to have the habit of assigning one whole volume everyday to me, especially to me. I don't know why he picked on me, but I presume that he knew I was training for the Presidency. But he used to lecture to us; and he used to make me sit down there, even if he knew that I knew all the answers.

So, now, I have the happy privilege of making him sit down and listen to me while I deliver my piece. And so I do savor this moment and this occasion.

But this is not the only reason I am happy about occasions like this. You see, Presidents are supposed to make history, and it is indeed the better way. It is up to others to write history. But, sometimes, there is a disparity between the history that is made and the history that is written, so much so that a great leader of his people decided that he would not wait for history to render its verdict on his times; instead, even as he served as prime minister, he began writing history, intent on rendering his own verdict on the history he made.

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* Extemporaneous speech of President Marcos at the Tenth Annual Seminar of the Philippine Historical Association, Far Eastern University, 29 November 1967.

That man was Winston Churchill. Winston Churchill, as you know, wrote a history of his nation and wrote the history of his ancestors. But I have no such ambitions.

However, everytime I read the newspapers, I feel like writing the truth because if you read the newspapers you will come to think that I am the worst kind of human being ever born to the Filipino race. If you read the columnists, you would think I do not know anything; I am ignorant, and I cannot say where we are going. I have no plan whatsoever for government, nor have I any emotions. I am some kind of a devil who has been, perhaps, let us say, molded by the unusual years known as the war years.

So when the professors here told me that, as a matter of tradition, as President, I am supposed to be the honorary president of the Historical Association, I told myself that this is not only a part of the fringe benefits of being President but that on this basis I can act like a historian or at least depend upon history for guidance in running the affairs of government. It is still my hope that someday, perhaps, since I'm only — well, I don't know if you know my age, but I better tell you, I am only 50 years old — I can write a history. And since I am supposedly descended from centenarians, I can look forward to writing our history even when I'm about 90 or 100 years old. By that time, perhaps, I will have mellowed, liberated from the passion and the bitterness and strife attached to politics.

I note the theme of this annual seminar, "Philippine Politics— Prospect and Retrospect." This is a theme that could excite the mind of any President. This is a theme that I would like to write about; and if I wrote everything I knew about Philippine politics, I am certain that either I would be sent to jail for libel or I would open the eyes of the young as well as the old.

Anyway, the pen of the historian should be disinterested. It should reflect no ulterior motive. The historian might chronicle progress, the progress of a nation, but need not be a participant in it. And right there, I am immediately disqualified because for historian to be objective, it is best that he does not participate in the making of history.

We are in a period of development not only of this nation, not only of Asia but of all the world, a time which is epochal. It is most historic. The old concepts are being swept away, and passing through the face of the world and of Asia is a fresh new breeze, indeed, a wind. You go all over Asia and you see leaders who are mostly young, with new ideas, new solutions to the old or ancient problems. Our own new society is evolving and it needs perhaps the practiced, the skilled eye of the historian to denote, and mark out, where such evolution moves and where it shall carry us.

The Philippine Historical Association is one of the most active and the most valuable partners of government in the task of achieving the national goal of economic and social progress. By means of seminars like this, where the inquiring mind is accorded an opportunity to examine important aspects of national life, you add to the momentum of progress created by the forces of government and society acting in concert to fulfill a program of government.

But it is the constant day-to-day activity of your every member, in relentless pursuit of truth, that provides us in government a larger measure of assistance. The findings of historical research and the accomplishments of scholarship enable our people and our government to develop new perspectives, to change ourselves, and to view ourselves with that objectivity that is the hallmark of the historian's life.

I have followed with great interest the various efforts of your association and observed, I must say with some envy, the devotion with which you have sought to preserve through various projects our historical past. Along with many of our people, I have thus found increasingly deeper instruction in the story of our country and people through the centuries.

A long time from now, perhaps, we will be remembered more for the miracle rice than for any other thing. But when we say rice, do we mean merely rice? No, we refer to agricultural development. What is the secret that I have discovered in the solution of the rice problem? They always ask me—all the interviewers, all the writers, and perhaps the historians are equally interested—what exactly did I find as the missing ingredient in our national life, in the government efforts, in organization, in personnel, which made the difference between success in propagating rice, and failure?

In order to arrive at a reasonable conclusion, I had to review the history of the efforts of all administrations from the beginning to the present with respect to rice; and herein lies what I consider a deficiency now in our history. I found no record whatsoever in government about the efforts of past administrations with respect to rice production. The same thing is true of foreign policy. There was no reason, no rationale given for the adoption of any particular policy. The same thing is true of national defense.

You all know, as I do, that there has been a change in the concept of national defense. Before, we conceived of danger to our country as coming from outside, external aggression; and because of this, we aimed at what we recognized as the historical enemy of our island nation, and those historical enemies then were Japan and, possibly, China. And then we further rationalized which of these historical enemies had a maritime tradition, or resources which made it capable of transporting troops for external aggression, and we jumped on Japan because it was she who had a maritime tradition.

And we studied its history from the war with Russia in 1905 through later developments, and we came to the conclusion that it was the likeliest potential enemy; and we were correct.

And so we approved Commonwealth Act No. 1, Commonwealth Act No. 1 which established a citizen army, a citizen army which was prepared for what we call immobile defense, defense at certain points of our country. But we all know that current developments, developments all over the world indicate that now it is not external aggression that is our principal enemy; it is internal subversion. It is the, shall we say, exported war, the so-called war of liberation. It is the war started from within, by indigenous forces perhaps. And so there is a change in the concept of defense.

I am trying to put this down in writing now in my own way; and so, in a way, I too am writing history. And I am putting this into the records of our government, because when I took over the reins of government, there was not a single page available by which I could be guided with respect to the problems that we have.

What did I discover as the secret to the solution of certain problems? After going over the entire history of the Philippines, I discovered that the main defect was in the deployment of our resources. And that is the secret that I have discovered, that in the solution of any problem, we did not use sufficient resources. So it was necessary to mass and concentrate all the available resources of government on the solution of one particular problem at any given time. It was only in that way that our Republic, our government may have a chance in solving big problems.

So you can see now how we have adopted the technique of leap-frogging from one problem to the next, with all our resources used each time. From rice, we went into roads. From roads, we went into schoolbuildings; but all the while, the talent in management, the talent of the action officers had to be concentrated on a single problem at a time; otherwise, there would have been a breakdown somewhere. And this I discovered, I repeat, from readings made on our history as a nation.

Increasingly, too, I have found that our past is particularly rich in evidence of a people's courage and vision. The history of our people is a history of great deeds and great hopes. And we can do no less in our day than to benefit from that past in terms of a deeper understanding of our capacities and our goals.

I am happy to note the emphasis on nationalism in your program. I hope that your interest in the subject, which I deeply share, will inspire in other sectors of our society a greater appreciation of the traditions and virtues of our people in themselves is developed to a degree that will sufficiently activate their energies in doing their share of nation building.

From my point of view, what is the one single program that is now needed after the development of infrastructure rice, education, manpower development and the salvage or rehabilitation of the industries that were in a state of bankruptcy when I took over? Right now, it is to broaden the base of our society. And how do we broaden the base of our society? Right now, history dictates—and I again repeat, this is a lesson that I learned from reading our history—history dictates that now, more than any other time in our story as a nation, there must be land reform. It is now when we need land reform; today when the people, the tenant class, the small farmer class, are aware of the potentialities of the farm, are aware of the fact that the farm can now produce for them not only the bare essentials of living but dignity, dignity for themselves and for their children.

Indeed, what man or woman is willing to accept the status of a beggar, begging for food, for clothing, for shelter? No one, I dare-say not one Filipino will accept this status. And especially now, especially now when our people realize that the farm is a source not only of living but also of the future. Now, it is necessary that we immediately gear ourselves to land reform; and it is my purpose as President of our Republic, that before my term is over as President at the end of 1969, we shall have declared the entire Central Luzon area as a land reform area.

This to me is pivotal. I remember when I said that we would try and build up our production of rice, eradicate smuggling, and increase the collections of the Bureau of Custom and the Bureau of Internal Revenue, I was laughed at. I know that I am being laughed at again about land reform, but it is my obsession, and it is my resolve to see to it that we bring about land reform as fast as we can. The intention is clear, the plans are there, but the legislation is deficient. The law can be amended or altered, of course, and with will and determination, we shall succeed.

It is a peculiar contribution of history writers to government, which I spoke of at the outset, that a leader and a people can read from that same history the lessons which can guide them toward attainment of their objectives and realization of their dreams. You are in a unique position to help the nation's leaders summon from our people a greater will to undertake tasks for the cause of national progress, for your special field of study holds up before the Filipinos of today a proud image of their forebears. This image formed by the accounts of your authors and scholars embodies the qualities indispensable to our modern enterprise of national development, qualities, for instance like industry, perseverance, sacrifice, boldness of spirit, self-abnegation. These virtues gave to Mactan, Tirad Pass, Balintawak, Bagumbayan, Bataan, Bessang Pass, their unique and special glory.

The message of history that you constantly deliver to the rest of us enables us to rediscover our capacity as a people to build the nation. With this capacity, we built the first constitutional democracy in Asia. With this capacity, we shall make Asia's first republic in the years to come a model of freedom and prosperity in this part of the world. It is a great service to the nation that you perform. By your work, you are helping to arouse fresh confidence among our people, a new Filipino confidence, and thereby accelerate in no small degree our advance towards the progress we have so long envisioned.

Imbued by the knowledge of what he can do and of what he must do to keep alive this racial tradition of greatness, the Filipino of the present, especially this, the younger generation, can move ahead with a certainty that he cannot fail. This thought has constantly inspired my every effort for vigorous action and performance.

And so, too, not only the younger generation but those who are in power now, including me, are buoyed up by history; whenever we get the feeling of depression, a weakness arising out of the repeated failure of our people to react to the stimuli that we have set for them, I gather strength from the history of our nation. For my feeling is this; if those leaders in the past, under more adverse circumstances, had been able to institute reforms in their country and amongst their people; if even against the threat and coercion of violence and even death, a leader could still stand up and guide his people, then I, too, under these more beneficent and benevolent circumstances granted by the grace of God, can do the same thing—if not equal them, approximate them.

I know, however, that the Filipino people have a tremendous potential for success and that they possess the excellence of mind and spirit to realize this potential. Indeed over the past two years, Filipinos in various fields of endeavor had proven beyond dispute their power for accomplishment, the capacity to direct events and shape things according to their purpose. The accomplishments in that brief period of hard, purposeful work have confirmed history's accounts of the courage and the ingenuity of our people in the past.

I hope that you will continue with the same zeal you have demonstrated over the past 12 years, to find and bring to our people's notice more and more evidence of our people's experience in nation building.

My administration is deeply committed to the support of worthy cultural projects. Your projects are just that, and I shall be happy to support them in every way possible.

Dr. Orosa has called attention to my humble contribution to your association. Rest assured that while I am President of the Republic of the Philippines, this government, the government of our Republic will continue to support within its means all the efforts of the Philippine Historical Association.

Thank you and good day.

Nascent Philippine Nationalism, 1872-1896*

H. de la Costa, S.J.

DURING THE PERIOD OF 1872-1896 a group of young Filipinos studying or residing in Spain laid the foundations of our nationalism. I would like to devote this paper to the political ideas of four of them: Sancianco y Goson of Manila, López Jaena of Iloilo, del Pilar of Bulacan, and Rizal of Laguna.

One important consequence of the Cavite mutiny of 1872 and the demonstration against the friars of 1888 was the proscription or deportation of prominent Filipinos whom the authorities suspected of having fomented them. Some of these exiles took up their residence in the neighboring British colony of Hong Kong; but others found their way to Spain, where they were given wide freedom to express their views. Here they were joined by student patriots eager to be of service to their country, and a small but exceedingly active and articulate Filipino colony formed in Madrid, another in Barcelona. By cultivating the friendship of politicians of the liberal persuasion, by writing books and publishing articles in journals, and by speeches and informal discussions, these expatriates, though hounded by poverty and divided often by petty quarrels, tried to call attention to the shortcomings and abuses of the administration of the Philippines and to get the government to adopt what they considered to be the necessary reforms.

One of the earliest of these propagandists was Gregorio Sancianco y Goson of Manila, a lawyer (†1892). In a series of studies on the revenue laws of the Philippines which he later gathered into a book (*El progreso de Filipinas*, Madrid, 1881),

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* A paper read at the Tenth Annual Seminar of the Philippine Historical Association, Far Eastern University, 29 November 1967.

Sancianco pointed out that whereas the official policy was to make no distinction between Spanish subjects whether peninsular or insular, white or colored, official practice continued to exempt Spaniards and Spanish mestizos in the Philippines from the tribute and forced labor imposed on Filipinos and Chinese residents. This, he said, constituted an insuperable obstacle to the assimilation of the colony to the mother country, and the formation thereby of the homogeneous Spanish state which both Spaniards and Filipinos ardently desired.

Another inequality of the Philippine tax structure was that while all natives, even the most destitute, were subject to tribute, landowners who derived a substantial income from their farms paid no property tax whatever. And yet a graduated tax on real property would not only be equitable but in the highest degree beneficial, for the additional revenue was precisely what the government needed to build the roads, bridges, harbors and port facilities without which further economic progress was impossible.

It was a commonplace among contemporary Spanish writers, Sancianco noted, to characterize the *indio* as indolent, as though this were a racial or national trait. Yet the indolence of the *indio*, aside from being much exaggerated, was by no means congenital. It was simply the result of his being deprived of the natural incentives and normal rewards of labor by a colonial system that not only failed to provide economic enterprise with the most elementary facilities of transport and communication, but placed innumerable bureaucratic obstacles in its way. He described, quoting from unimpeachable official sources, the brutalizing effect of the tobacco monopoly on the tobacco farmer of the Cagayan valley, and, drawing from personal experience as a river and coastal trader, gave a telling account of the paralyzing delays and petty persecution which such small merchants had to put up with from port, revenue and police officials.

We cannot say whether Sancianco's representations had any influence on the ministers of Alfonso XII, or, indeed, whether they even read him; but the action they took may be said to have proved him right. Not only did they abolish the tobacco monopoly and substitute for it the *cedula personal* as a source of revenue, but they extended the *cédula personal* requirement to all, Spaniards as well as Filipinos. Moreover, they reduced the duration of forced labor from 40 to 15 days a year and also made Spaniards liable to it equally with Filipinos, although everyone who paid a certain amount in taxes was allowed to purchase an exemption.

Graciano López Jaena (1856-1896) was a native of Iloilo who had come to Spain originally to study medicine, instead of which he devoted almost all his attention and energies to the propaganda for reforms. He was one of the principal organizers of the Filipino association in Barcelona called La Solidaridad, and the first editor of the fortnightly journal, called by the same name, which was its official organ (1889-1895).

López attributed the backwardness of the Philippines to the fact that the government there was far more interested in repression than in stimulation. Every little disturbance among the native population was blown up into a vast conspiracy to shake off the Spanish yoke, and governors general, army officers for the most part, spent their time putting down rebellions which turned out to be purely imaginary. On the other hand, they did nothing whatever about the disastrous monetary situation which allowed foreign merchants to drain good money out of the country and replace it with debased Mexican dollars. These had been made legal tender some years previously as a temporary measure to meet an acute shortage of currency, but had not been promptly redeemed as promised, and indeed as the situation demanded.

And what material progress could be expected in a colony where popular education—what there was of it—placed so much emphasis on the rote-memory learning of the catechism as to neglect altogether instruction in the useful arts and trades? A common language for the multilingual islands was indispensable, and Spanish could be that language; but the clergy who had control of education still, for reasons of their own, opposed its use as a medium of instruction.

The upper ranks of the colonial civil service were open to qualified natives — in theory; in practice, they were pre-empted by the often incompetent beneficiaries of political patronage in the Peninsula, who descended like swarms of locusts on the Philippines every time there was a change of ministry in Madrid.

Only at the lowest level of local government was any initiative or scope given to natives. No Spaniards coveted the post of petty governor, but no Filipino in his right mind would either, for with the increasing complexity of administration the government had simply multiplied his duties without increasing either his powers, his means or his salary.

To remedy this "deplorable situation," as he called it, López proposed a reversal of the policy of repression, a policy based on the mistaken assumption that it would keep Filipinos submissive and loyal to Spain. Instead of isolating them from each other and from the rest of the world and depriving them of the capacity to think and act for themselves, let the freedoms championed by liberalism be extended to them: freedom of speech and the press, freedom of assembly, freedom of trade. Only in this way will they be able to acquire the scientific and technical knowledge necessary to produce goods capable of competing with those of other nations in world markets. By thus improving as well as increasing production, the flow of money out of the country will be stopped and its direction reversed.

But for this it is essential that Filipinos be permitted to trade with each other and travel from any part of the islands to any other part. The policy of driving Filipinos the better to dominate them must be definitely abandoned. This is a matter less of expediency than justice; the right of the natives of the Philippines to possess and develop the natural resources of their land is a right conceded by Nature of which they cannot be deprived. We note here an advance in López's thought over that of Sancianco; he is taking his stand on what he conceives to be the natural rights of Filipinos as Filipinos, not those which may be conceded to them as Spanish subjects.

Marcelo Hilario del Pilar (1850-1896) was a native of Bulacan who studied for the law in the University of Santo Tomás. While practising his profession in his home province he came into conflict with certain friar parish priests over reforms in local government which the latter opposed as savoring too much of liberalism. He edited a liberal newspaper and was active in collecting funds for the propaganda campaign being carried on in Spain. After the anti-friar demonstration of 1888 in which he took part he thought it more prudent to leave the colony and go to the metropolis, where he placed his considerable talents for polemic at the service of the reformist cause.

Del Pilar was convinced, on the basis of his personal experience, that the principal obstacle to Philippine progress was the Spanish regular clergy, who used their position of dominance in the towns and their access to the high councils of the colonial government to prevent the introduction of liberal reforms. He could see no way of removing this obstacle except by expelling the friars from the colony altogether, a measure which he strongly and consistently advocated. But aside from this Del Pilar believed that Filipinos should seek to better their condition by peaceful rather than violent means. The reforms he wanted were substantially those proposed by Sancianco and López; if these were granted, he saw no reason why the Philippines could not be completely and permanently assimilated to the mother country as an overseas province.

However, he did allow for the possibility of a separatist revolt; if reforms were denied or unduly delayed, he said, Filipinos would have no other choice. And there is evidence to show that toward the end of his life the disappointing results of the propaganda campaign were turning his thoughts more and more toward revolution.

The principal protagonist of the movement was undoubtedly José Rizal (1861-1896), a native of Laguna. His father and elder brother were well-to-do *inquilinos* of the Dominican estate of Calamba, but having got into a dispute with the hacienda administration lost their case in the courts and were evicted. After taking his B.A. in the Jesuit Ateneo Municipal, Rizal began his medical studies at the University of Santo Tomás and completed them in Madrid.

Rizal might have won eminence in his profession, but like López he sacrificed this prospect to the more urgent task of improving the condition of his people. Although he wrote numerous articles for *La Solidaridad* and other journals, his most widely read contributions to the propaganda for reforms were two novels, *Noli Me Tangere* (Berlin, 1887) and *El Filibusterismo* (Ghent, 1891), in which he dramatized the contemporary Philippine situation.

Rizal's judgment on that situation was that it called for a fundamental change in the relationship which had hitherto obtained between the colony and the mother country, between the dominant and the subject people. This change was inevitable; it could not be stopped and it was useless to try to stop it. It could, however, be directed. There were two alternative directions in which the change could take place, and it was still possible to choose between them. To be able to choose, it was necessary to understand the causes that produced the situation.

Rizal's interpretation of Philippine history was briefly this. Before the Spanish conquest Filipinos had their own culture. They had developed their own forms of economic and social organization. They were governed by their own rulers under their own laws. They worshipped their own gods. They spoke and wrote in their own languages, and they had the beginnings of a native literature and art. It was all admittedly primitive, but it was in process of normal development, and certain aspects of it were full of promise. Left to itself, what might it not have become?

But it was not left to itself; the Spanish conquest overwhelmed it. The Filipinos were forced to abandon their own for an alien culture, a culture which they never completely understood or assimilated, and the result was that they lost their nerve. They lost confidence in their past, faith in their present, hope in their future.

The Filipinos remained in this state of subjection for three centuries, during which the Spanish colonial government not only deprived them of their own culture but imposed upon them heavy burdens and exactions of every sort. Yet they offered no effective resistance; they remained, for the most part, passive and apathetic. It is true that there were occasional uprisings and revolts, but they were limited, local, isolated and easily put down. They were outbursts of blind rage against this particular exaction, against that particular official. They were not movements of resistance by Filipinos as such against Spanish rule as such. They were not national for the simple reason that Filipinos were not yet conscious of nationality.

But by Rizal's time this was no longer true. By that time Filipinos had become conscious of themselves as a nation; and this change was what gave the contemporary situation its particular character of urgency. What had happened to rouse the Filipinos from the sleep of centuries? What shock jarred them into this new consciousness of their identity as a people? Rizal's answer to this question is curious and characteristic.

He attributes the change not to an economic, social or political cause but to a psychological one. What did it was, briefly, that the Spaniards added insult to injury. During the earlier phase of Spanish rule the colonial government demanded much of Filipinos; but it did not despise them. It treated them as subjects but not as inferiors. It exploited them, but it also recognized their essential humanity and hence their essential equality with the conqueror. Filipinos were drafted into the colonial army, but they were also given positions of command in that army. The government insisted on obedience, but it also listened to complaints and occasionally did something about them. Injustice, even those committed by the white man, was sometimes punished; wrongs, even those suffered by the brown man, were sometimes redressed.

But in the latter phase of the colonial period a different attitude began to prevail among the Spaniards in the Philippines. They began to treat Filipinos with contempt as essentially inferior beings, "mere muscle, brutes and beasts of burden" who were such because they were incapable of being anything else. In Rizal's own bitter words, they

> affirmed and took for granted what they wanted to believe. They made the race itself an object of insult. They professed themselves unable to see in it any admirable quality, any human trait. Certain writers and clergymen surpassed themselves by undertaking to prove that the natives lacked not only the capacity for virtue but even the talent for vice.

By adopting this attitude the Spaniard wounded the Filipino in the most sensitive part of his spiritual being; his *amor propio,* that is to say, his self-esteem, his sense of personal dignity. Rizal gave great importance to this; he seems to have looked on *amor propio* as the key to the psychology not only of the Filipino but of the Malay race in general. It is not to be wondered at, then, that the Filipino reaction to Spanish contempt was prompt and passionate. Not only that; it was national—this is what Rizal particularly wanted to stress. It was national because the affront was offered not to a particular Filipino or to a particular class of Filipinos but to Filipinos as such, as a nation, and in reacting to it the Filipino nation found itself. What three centuries of oppression could not do, wounded *amor propio* did. It brought into being Filipino nationalism.

Conscious now of their common misery Filipinos began to agitate for reforms on a national scale. The day of regional revolts, local uprisings, ephemeral conspiracies was over. The demand was for a reappraisal of the entire colonial system from top to bottom and for its reconstruction on an entirely new principle — the principle of equality between Spaniards and Filipinos.

Such was Rizal's assessment of the situation; what did he think Spain was doing about it? Like his fellow propagandists, he believed that Spain had adopted a mistaken policy of repression. He observed that the Spanish conservatives were opposed to any change in the colonial administration on principle. But even the Spanish liberals, while they might pay lip-service to liberty, equality and fraternity, did not seriously entertain the introduction of liberal reforms. As they themselves put it, they could afford to be liberals in Spain; in the Philippines they could not be anything but Spaniards.

Rizal looked upon this policy not only as mistaken but as impossible. How indeed, he asked, did Spain propose to stop progress in the Philippines? He could think of only four ways: by keeping the Filipinos ignorant, by keeping them poor, by not allowing them to increase in numbers, by dividing them against themselves. None of these devices could possibly succeed.

Rizal shared López's low opinion of popular education in the Philippines. It was probably his principal grievance against the friars that they established and still retained control of a system of elementary education that imparted ignorance rather than knowledge. In the past, no doubt, it achieved the end desired of teaching the natives how to read without teaching them how to think; but it was becoming less and less effective. Filipinos were finding ways and means of enlightening themselves either by self-instruction or by travel abroad.

As for keeping the people poor, it was a very dangerous expedient; it might produce precisely what it was designed to prevent. He said:

> We know from experience that in any country, and much more so in the Philippines, it is the wealthier classes that have always been the staunchest supporters of peace and order, for since they live better than the rest they stand to lose more in civil disturbances. Riches make men cautious and conservative, while poverty breeds radical ideas, a desire to change the existing order of things, and a carelessness as to whether one lives or dies. Machiavelli himself finds this method of keeping a people subject full of peril, for he observes that the loss of livelihood breeds enemies more implacable than the loss of life. Where there is wealth and abundance there is less unrest and fewer grievances, and the government, since it derives greater revenue, is better able to maintain itself in power.

As for trying to limit or reduce the population of the Philippines, it was ridiculous even to think of it. The Australian, the Polynesian and the American Indian might give way before the advance of European settlement and waste away into a few scattered tribes. But the Filipinos, inspite of recurrent epidemics, in spite of the almost uninterrupted series of wars in which they had been forced to take part either as antagonists or as allies of the Spaniards, were actually increasing in numbers.

There remained the method of setting Filipinos against each other and thus preventing them from combining against their common master. This might have succeeded, and did succeed to a large extent, in the past, when communications between the different regions were slow and difficult, travel costly and dangerous. It had ceased to be practicable in Rizal's time. The very attempt to create regional division strengthened national unity, for it meant sending native troops from one island to another, and this intermingling of Filipinos, far from estranging them from one another, merely gave them excellent opportunities to discover that they had common problems from which they needed to seek a common way out.

Thus the policy of repression was not only unworkable; it was self-defeating. Every increase of pressure built up a greater counter-pressure, a greater head of steam behind the determination of Filipinos to regain their self-respect by achieving equality with the white man and a larger share in the management of their own affairs. The situation in the Phlippines had reached a point where change was inevitable. The choice was no longer whether change would occur but merely what kind of change it was to be.

If Spain persisted in her intransigent policy, there was no doubt in Rizal's mind, as there was none in Del Pilar's, as to what that change would be. The Philippines would be compelled to seek by force of arms its complete independence. The Filipino people still recognized men of moderation as their leaders; but in the measure that they lost hope of obtaining redress by peaceful means, they would transfer their allegiance from the men of peace to the men of violence, from reformists to revolutionists. He said:

> It is thus that we interpret the situation, we who labor through legal means and peaceful argument. With eyes fixed on our objectives we shall continue to promote our cause without overstepping the limits of the law. But if force compels us to be silent or misfortune removes us from public life — which is not impossible since we are mortal — then we know not upon what courses a younger generation, more numerous and more aggressive than we are, and straining to take our places, will embark.

Would the Filipinos be deterred from attempting a war of liberation by the near-certainty of failure? Rizal did not think so. Doubtless they would fail the first time; fail a second, third and fourth time; but they would not always fail. The unalterable facts of geography and demography were in their favor. Spain was far away and her limited population could not long support the strain of keeping down by main force a people determined to be free. True; every European power was on the lookout for colonies; but this very fact ought to operate in the Philippines' favor, for the powers would hardly permit one of their number to steal a march on the rest.

This, then, was one direction the impending change could take: separation from Spain. It was not the direction Rizal himself would choose. For one thing, its cost in blood and treasure would be appalling. But more importantly, it would severe a historic bond between Spain and the Philippines which had been forged by three centuries of coexistence, which had yielded mutual benefits in the past and might yield still greater benefits in the future.

This bond ought to be preserved; but how? Not as it was. The master-subject relationship was no longer tenable. To keep the relationship one must change it, and it would have to be a fundamental change indeed. The colonial bond must become a partnership. More than a partnership; for what Rizal contemplated was not so much the British idea of a commonwealth of nations as the French idea of assimilation. The only way to keep Filipinos loyal to Spain was to grant them equal citizenship with Spaniards in the same Spanish nation which would then include not only the Spanish homeland but the Philippines. Rizal realized that this could not be done in a day, but he proposed that it be set up as an ultimate goal to be achieved by a series of reforms. Or rather, by two parallel series of reforms, the one to be undertaken by the Spanish government, the other by the Filipinos themselves.

The reforms in Rizal's first series, chiefly administrative and political, were substantially those of his colleagues.

But it was in proposing his second series of reforms, those to be undertaken by the Filipinos themselves, that Rizal showed himself to be more perceptive than his colleagues. Filipinos, he said, do not have the Spaniards alone to blame for their state of subjection. They have themselves to blame just as much, if not more. "There would be no masters if there were no slaves." Filipinos must realize that they cannot have the privileges of freedom unless they are willing to accept its responsibilities. But to fit themselves for the responsibilities of freedom means undergoing a slow and painful process of self-discipline; making a determined and sustained effort, individually and collectively, to lift themselves out of the slough of despond, out of the ignorance, apathy and indolence in which they have been sunk for centuries.

Moreover, if Filipinos wished a measure of self-government to be extended to their country, then instead of merely agitating for it as they were doing, they should devote some time and effort to cultivating in themselves the virtues that enable people to govern themselves. What were these virtues? One was what Rizal called *economía:* the prudent husbanding of limited resources so that they would produce the maximum benefit for the greatest number. Another was what he called *transigencia,* which we may roughly render as "the spirit of give and take". By this he meant the willingness to compromise, not indeed on matters of principle, but on those questions of practical policy which are of their nature subject to adjustment.

Democracy, Rizal pointed out, is government by discussion; the people or their representatives meet to debate several different courses of action and decide on one. The object of debate in a democracy is not to make one's opinion prevail at all costs, but collectively to choose that course which will be found after free and frank discussion to be the widest and best. This course may not be one's own; it may not be anybody's; it may be, and usually is, a course that emerges during the debate itself through a series of mutual concessions and compromises. This procedure, so necessary in a democracy, requires a high degree of discipline and self-restraint. *Transigencia* thus understood does not come natural to people, especially to people with as much *amor propio* as Filipinos. It must be the object of conscious effort; it must be learned.

Such in brief was Rizal's political doctrine. Its great merits are obvious at first glance. Some of its deficiencies may be noted in passing. Rizal consistently overrates the pre-Spanish culture of the Philippines, which was not nearly as developed as he makes it out to be. On the other hand, his evaluation of Spanish rule is vitiated by the assumption that the Spanish conquest destroyed the indigenous culture and substituted an alien culture in its stead. This is to oversimplify matters considerably. Cultures are not destroyed in quite so summary a fashion.

Spanish rule undoubtedly modified Philippine culture and added to it elements which were completely new — Christianity, for instance. But it hardly destroyed it. The Filipinos did indeed adopt Spanish culture, but they did so selectively and vitally. They made it their own, a culture different from what they had originally and what the Spaniards brought.

No one questions the fact that the Spanish conquest of the Philippines was violent and destructive, as all conquests must be, and that the subsequent colonial rule was in many ways oppressive and repressive. But it is going beyond the evidence to argue from this, as Rizal seems to do, that the Spanish period of Philippine history was an almost completely negative interlude; a state of suspended animation; a kind of Dark Age which contributed nothing to the enrichment or development of the national culture. The cultural value of Christianity is pretty generally admitted even by those who do not subscribe to its teachings, and the Philippines' debt to Spain in this regard is as obvious as it is profound.

We must note, further, that in the last analysis it was Spanish colonial rule that developed the Filipino nationalism which eventually put an end to colonial rule, and this not only negatively, by sheer reaction, but positively, by supplying the movement for reforms and the subsequent separatist movement with their frame of reference and their principles. It was through the mediation of Spain that the ideas of human equality, civic freedom and the rule of law, ideas Hellenic and Christian in origin, became an integral part of Philippine culture. One does not have to read very extensively in Rizal and his associates to realize that their rejection of colonialism had for its theoretical base not an Asian but a Western world-view. It was not from the Upanishads or the Confucian Analects that they derived their inspiration. The liberty, equality and fraternity which they claimed for their people were forged in the Greek city-state, the Christian gospels, the universities of the Middle Ages, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man.

In short, the leaders of the Propaganda Movement, and Rizal most of all, were the fated fruit of the Spanish conquest, the natural term of Spanish colonization, the kind of Filipino whose emergence the Spanish conquistador and missionary made not only possible but inevitable. But of course it is a little too much to expect the Spaniards of the time to realize or admit this. Rizal's novels were proscribed by the government board of censorship as both subversive and heretical. Rizal himself, shortly after his return to the Philippines in 1892, was arrested and banished to Dapitan on the island of Mindanao.

But in the interval between his arrival and arrest, Rizal founded an association, the Liga Filipina, whose purposes, nationalist but not subversive, he defined as follows:

1. To unite the whole archipelago into one compact, vigorous and homogeneous body. 2. Mutual protection in every want and necessity. 3. Defense against all violence and injustice. 4. Encouragement of instruction, agriculture and commerce. 5. Study and application of reforms.

Among the most active in recruiting members for the Liga was a warehouse worker named Andrés Bonifacio (1863-1897). The officers of the association, however, who were moderate reformists like its founder, soon discovered to their horror that Bonifacio was giving out that the Liga's object was revolution. They thereupon declared the Liga dissolved; and Bonifacio, on the very night that Rizal departed for exile (7 July 1892) organized a new society with frankly separatist aims, the Katipunan.

The membership of the Katipunan in 1896 has been variously estimated, the estimate ranging from 20,000 to 120,000. Whatever the figure, the supreme council decided that it was time to take up arms against the government. Dr. Pío Valenzuela was dispatched to Dapitan to ask Rizal to head the revolution and if he consented to arrange for his escape. Rizal refused on the grounds that the uprising was premature, and the better to avoid any involvement in it, he volunteered to serve as a surgeon with the Spanish forces then fighting in Cuba. His offer was accepted and he was summoned to Manila, there to take ship for Spain.

Shortly before he got to Manila, however, the Katipunan was discovered by the authorities. Teodoro Patiño, a typesetter, betrayed it to Father Mariano Gil, the Augustinian parish priest of Tondo, who immediately reported it to the police (19 August 1896). Bonifacio narrowly escaped arrest; and, gathering a small band of his followers just outside the city, proclaimed the revolution against Spain by tearing up his *cédula personal,* symbol of subjection, to pieces and raising the cry of "Long Live Philippine Freedom!"

In the confused situation that followed Rizal was permitted to proceed to Spain. The authorities soon recalled, however, that

Filipinos looked upon him as their foremost champion, and decided to make an example of him. He was sent for to stand trial for sedition. The trial was a summary one before a military court. Rizal pleaded not guilty. He had nothing whatever to do with the uprising; not only that, he had actually counseled against it. He offered to do so again in a public manifesto to the Katipunan. His offer was rejected. The court found him guilty and on 30 December 1896 he was executed by a firing squad.

Far from dismaying the revolutionists, the killing of Rizal merely strengthened their resolution. All the Tagalog provinces were now up in arms. Meanwhile, earlier that same year, both López and Del Pilar had died in Barcelona. Rizal's prophecy was fulfilled. The leadership of the country had passed from the men of peace to the men of violence.

The Future of Philippine Politics*

Gabriel F. Fabella

ACCORDING TO THE LATE Dean Maximo M. Kalaw, the beginnings of political parties in the Philippines may be traced to differences of opinion between Jose Rizal and Marcelo H. del Pilar during the reform movement, inappropriately called the Propaganda, in the eighties and nineties. That movement is a clear manifestation of the growing spirit of nationalism which historians generally believe to have been born in or about 1872 as a direct consequence of the unjust execution of the three priests: Gomez, Burgos and Zamora.

The two outstanding reform propagandists were both patriots, yet in the pursuit of the common aim of securing reforms for our country, they differed in methods, in the ways and means of attaining their objectives. This phenomenon is not surprising for it had also occurred in such other countries as the United States of America. There, the beginnings of political parties may also be traced to the differences of opinion between Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson both members of the same cabinet working for the common weal under the leadership of President George Washington.

During the existence of the famous Malolos Congress from 1898 to 1899, there were as yet no defined political leaders. But there were two groups which we may describe as the "haves" and the "havenots." Perhaps both groups had in mind the ultimate welfare of their country, but one had the tendency to promote and defend their own interests forgetting at times the good of the whole national community.

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True political parties in the Philippines, that is, in their modern connotation, were born only in the early years of the American regime. Dr. Trinidad H. Pardo de Tavera, with the sanction of the American authorities, organized the Federal Party with two definite objectives; namely, (1) to cooperate with the rulers in the campaign for pacification, and (2) to prepare the country for statehood under the American union. This was the party in power from about 1901 to 1907.

In advocating statehood under the American union, Pardo de Tavera could not altogether be blamed. He thought that since it was impossible to attain independence through the use of force (as proven in the Fil-American War), it was preferable that the Filipinos became free citizens under the United States of America, instead of remaining as mere subjects thereof. Unfortunately for the Federalists, they failed to reckon with the sentiment of nationalism that had rooted deep in the consciousness of our people. They had just fought unsuccessfully the Americans to maintain their independence and they could not swallow the idea of remaining permanently under a foreign yoke. In the meantime they acquiesced to American rule, but they would not give up their hope for freedom. The consequence of this sentiment was the formation of several groups or parties intent on regaining our independence, this time through legal and peaceful means. In the early part of 1907, the different "independence" parties coalesced into one party, which they baptized as the Nacionalista Party. This group answered the longings and aspirations of our people, and hence easily won the majority for membership in the first Philippine Assembly in 1907. The Nacionalista triumph was an expression of triumphant nationalism.

From 1907 to 1916, the Speaker of the Philippine Assembly, Sergio Osmeña, was the President of the Nacionalista Party. Under the leadership of this great leader, the independence campaign was pursued vigorously, with Manuel L. Quezon as his mouthpiece in Washington, D.C. The efforts of Quezon in the United States finally bore fruit with the approval of the Philippine autonomy act of 1916, popularly known as the Jones law. It contained a definite promise of independence "as soon as a stable government has been established."

This legislation is actually the first official pronouncement of the will of the American people through their authorized representatives in the Congress. While it is true that they came out in favor of independence, the pronouncements of the American presidents from McKinley through Taft were couched in a very vague language. Moreover, under the American scheme of government, the Congress not the American President is the policy-making body. The Congress having spoken, it became evident that the Philippines was to regain her independence. But when? That is the question. The phrase "as soon as a stable government has been established" was very elastic, actually indefinite.

There was much rejoicing in the Philippines on the passage of the autonomy act in the United States Congress. Our leaders assured our people that it was a matter of two years or so, when independence would come. They said that for all intents and purposes we already had a stable government. A little polishing was all that was needed. Certainly, independence was just around the corner. But this proved otherwise. In 1917 the United States was drawn into the first World War, and the problem of winning that war occupied the minds of the American people. They had no time to trouble themselves with a few "islets" in the Pacific.

The phrase "as soon as a stable government has been established" sounded very pleasant to the ears, but it involved implications not as pleasant to analyze. What was meant by stable government anyway? And who was to determine whether we already had a stable government? Certainly not the Filipino people, but the American Congress. In other words no matter how much we shouted to the four winds that our government was stable, we could do nothing if the authorized representatives of the American people insisted that our government was not yet stable. This actually happened when the Wood-Forbes mission was sent here presumably to investigate conditions in this country. In spite of facts and figures, it reported that we did not have yet a stable government.

The Filipinos had been deluded into believing in the rosy promise of independence as embodied in the Jones law; but they were disillusioned, and so the next time they worked for a new independence law, they saw to it that a definite date was fixed, as it was fixed, in the Hare-Hawes-Cutting bill. Americans, like any other nation, have to look after their own interests.

Even President Wilson was likely not in favor of the grant of independence at an early date. The first World War came to an end in November, 1918, and if he were truly sincere in his protestations for Philippine independence, he could have sent a message to Congress early in 1919 recommending the fulfillment of America's solemn promise of independence. Why did he have to wait for a lame-duck Congress to do so? He knew by then that his recommendation would not be acted upon favorably. He also knew that the incoming Congress would be controlled by the opposition party, and the Republicans were not in favor of independence. By then Wilson was a broken man. He had become disillusioned with the defeat in the Senate of his pet project, the League of Nations. Maybe, that was only a convenient gesture on his part, but Christian charity demands that we overlook his shortcoming. But to return to Philippine politics.

One consequence of the establishment of the Philippine Senate was the rise of Senate President Manuel L. Quezon's star. As President of the upper chamber of the Philippine legislature, he chafed under the leadership of Speaker Sergio Osmeña who, he said, was running the government with little regard for the Senate, specially its president. In short, he wanted to be the leader, and not play second fiddle in the government. The result was his "revolt" against Osmeña in 1921 when he bolted the Osmeña camp to found another party, which clamored for collective leadership. This splinter group was known as the Colectivista branch of the Nacionalista Party. In the elections of 1922, none of three parties — the Colectivistas, the Unipersonalistas and the Democratas — obtained a majority in the House of Representatives, and in order to keep the Nacionalistas in power, Quezon made overtures with Osmeña to cede him the presidency of the reunited Nacionalista Party, resulting in Quezon's obtaining the leadership in the government. Thus, Quezon attained his ambition to become No. 1 leader of his people. From 1923 to 1933 Quezon was President of the Nacionalista Consolidado

Party and he conveniently forgot his "ideal" of collective leadership. He ruled the party more ruthlessly than Osmeña had ever done. To rid himself of Osmeña's possible threat to his leadership, the Osmeña-Roxas (Osrox) mission was dispatched to the United States to work for independence. After working for several years in the United States the Osrox mission succeeded in securing the passage of the Hare-Hawes-Cutting bill, which provided for Philippine independence in ten years.

While he apparently favored the new legislation at first, Quezon changed his mind later. He surmised that its approval might mean Osmeña's ascendancy just as the Jones Law had enabled him to rise to power. No, he could not allow that eventuality to happen. He, therefore, opposed the acceptance of the Hare-Hawes-Cutting bill when it became apparent that the bill would be approved. Again the country was rocked to its foundation by the controversy over the mesaure as it was during the 1922 rebellion. Meanwhile Quezon strengthened his hold on the Congress when Osmeña and Roxas were still away. Quezon then managed to have the bill rejected by the Philippine legislature. Soon after, he announced that he would work for what he called a better law. President Franklin D. Roosevelt of the United States was then sitting in the White House, and Quezon conjectured that he might persuade him to change a few words in the bill. It was a critical situation and Quezon knew it. He was told that no law better than the Hare-Hawes-Cutting Act could be obtained at that time. Thus, he staked his political fortune in a veritable gamble. Somehow or other, contrary to expectations, the political magician succeeded in his attempt, but he brought home the same Hare-Hawes-Cutting law with a mere change of some fifty words.

Under the law, a constitutional convention was convoked for the drafting of a constitution for the Philippine Commonwealth. After sitting for several months, it completed its work on 8 February 1935. Quezon and his select followers then journeyed to the United States to have the constitution approved by the President of the United States, as provided for in the basic law. On September 17, 1935, the first election for the Commonwealth was held, and Manuel L. Quezon became president, with Sergio Osmeña as vice-president. Thus Quezon retained his leadership in the government, a leadership which he relinquished only when he died on August 1, 1944. Osmeña then became president by operation of law. Thus, although Osmeña was returned to power, he failed to be elected President in 1946. He was defeated by his colleague Manuel Roxas.

Manuel Roxas was closely associated with Osmeña during the campaign for the approval of the Hare-Hawes-Cutting bill, and every effort was made by their followers to reconcile the two leaders. However, all overtures failed. Roxas must have conjectured that should he remain in the Nacionalista party he had no chance to come out in a convention. His only possible hope would be to organize his own followers into a political party. That was what he did, but the glorious name "Nacionalista" being apparent to all, he chose the name Nacionalista (Liberal Wing). So, my friends, another party was born. It was ushered into the political arena because of the ambitions of one leader who, as a consequence, realized his long cherished ambition to become the first president of the Republic of the Philippines, with Elpidio Quirino as his team-mate.

Incidentally, in the 1946 elections Osmeña made only one speech in the whole campaign and that was at Plaza Miranda, Manila. That was one reason for his defeat. The Philippine electorate had to be wooed and won by a candidate not through local leaders as in the past. Osmeña belonged to the old school of politicians who would rely upon their good record in the public service.

President Roxas proved to be a good president. The country was prostrate, but he succeeded in balancing the budget and otherwise performed his duties faithfully and efficiently. Unfortunately, he died in 1948 at Clark Air Base after serving our people scarcely two years. Elpidio Quirino succeeded to the presidency inheriting the problems that Roxas was trying to solve. Quirino was elected president on his own in 1949, so that his total service as president was five years, seven months and fifteen days.

President Quirino chose to run again in 1953, but he was defeated by his erstwhile secretary of national defense, Ramon Magsaysay, who succeeded in curbing the Huk menace to the national security. Sensing his popularity, a number of Nacionalista leaders persuaded him to run under their banner. So, Magsaysay changed his party from Liberal to Nacionalista, and won the elections with unprecedented majority. This was the beginning of political "turncoatism" in this country, about which phenomenon a few words will be said later.

Unfortunately, the popular president who might have been reelected without an opponent in 1957, died in a plane crash in Cebu in March of that year. Naturally, Carlos P. Garcia, his vice-president assumed the presidency. Like Quirino, Garcia was elected in his own right in the same year (1957). When Garcia ran for reelection in 1961, he was defeated by his vice-president, Diosdado Macapagal, a Liberal. As it is in the Philippines, this was unprecedented even in the political history of the United States.

One secret of Macapagal's triumph, it is said, was his campaign which lasted four years. A vice-president under the constitution has nothing to do except to wait for his pay envelope, and to pray for an accident to happen to the president. To keep himself busy, Macapagal campaigned on the grassroots level.

Since Manuel Roxas' time the vice-president had always been given a cabinet portfolio, but as Macapagal balonged to the opposition, he was not taken into the confidence of the President. From this little experience it is probably better to revise our constitution and give the vice-president a definite assignment, say, as presiding officer of the Senate, as in the United States.

Macapagal had grandiose plans to accomplish in what he termed the five-year socio-economic program. Why five years, we now understand. He wanted to be reelected. Perhaps, he tried to do his best during his four-year term, but it seemed to the people that his best was not good enough. When he ran again in 1965, he was defeated by Ferdinand Marcos, former president of the Liberal Party.

When elected president of the Philippines, Marcos was also serving as president of the Senate. Because Macapagal insisted on running again contrary to a solemn promise that he would not, Marcos bolted the Liberal party and joined the Nacionalistas. By exerting unusually strenous efforts, he succeeded in obtaining the Nacionalista nomination for president, and he won the elections in 1965. Like Macapagal, Marcos is doing his best, but judgment of his entire performance has to be withheld until his term is over.

Thus far, my friends, I have presented to you the development of Philippine politics from its beginnings to the present. Only by presenting the past and present politics in this country can any one be able to predict its future developments. Please, remember that our theme is "The Future of Philippine Politics," and we can surmise the future only on the basis of past and present trends. To do otherwise is dangerous; it is almost an impossible task. I am not endowed by God with the ability to foretell the future. The age of the prophets is gone forever.

The future of politics in this country may now be hazarded. This speaker does not guarantee, however, that what he would say will come to pass. The future is inscrutable. Any insignificant unforeseen events or circumstances may change the course of history, as proven in the past. But it is unnecessary to cite these events.

I have only two points to present to you.

First: In this country we will in all probability develop a "Filipino" brand of politics just as we are developing our own brand of democracy. Such politics will be different from the American, English or French. It might be like Latin American politics. We possess traits similar to Latin Americans.

The culture and character of our people differ from those of the North Americans, the English or the French. Before the coming of the Spaniards our barangay governments were a mixture of totalitarian and patriarchal elements. The head of the barangay was invariably obeyed by his people. This is also true with our neighboring nations—the Malaysians and the Indonesians. When Islamic missionaries came to Southeast Asia, all they had to do was to befriend and convert the rulers and the rest of their people followed. "Follow the leader" was their slogan. This is to say, "follow the head of the barangay," or its patriarch, the oldest man in the community. This is a unique Asian trait. Even now the head of a family is more often than not an autocrat. He cannot generally tolerate opposition to his wishes by his children and dependents. Our churches are autocratic in the sense that we have to follow precepts interpreted by their ministers. Any deviation is heretical.

In passing, it is interesting to note that in Indonesia, where the people have similar traits as ourselves, they have developed what ex-President Sukarno called "guided democracy." The so-called democracy in Indonesia, however, is not actually democratic; it is a government of the strong, a government of the military. It is better called a military dictatorship rather than a democracy.

A similar trend toward dictatorship was witnessed in the Philippines when President Quezon was the national leader. He showed a tendency towards a one-man rule. As a matter of fact, his enemies called him a dictator, and there is some truth in that assertion. But if he were dictatorial, Quezon was benevolent, like the benevolent despots of Europe, such as Frederick the Great of Prussia, Joseph II of Austria, and Katherine the Great of Russia.

An analysis of our past shows that our ancestors were in favor of a one-man leadership. Therefore, it might be to our advantage to have a leader who will guide our people as Sukarno had tried to guide the Indonesians. This we may do, but with modifications. Our people are not yet fully prepared for the American or the English brand of democracy and politics. It would take them time to grow and develop. It took the English several hundred years to attain their present status. Our training for democracy has been quite short. It began only about sixty years ago. Meanwhile, what is wrong with the Quezon brand? Of course we must realize that the ultimate welfare of our country depends on the leader; hence, it becomes necessary to exercise great care in the choice of that leader. He might be dictatorial in his tendencies, yet if he has the true welfare of his country above his own, then it is safe for the people to elevate him to supreme leadership of the land. Quezon was greatly beloved by our people. In fact he remains the greatest leader this country has produced. Any leader, therefore, who would attempt to lead our people must be of the type of Manuel Quezon.

From the Spaniards we imbibed some of their peculiar characteristics. They have experimented on various forms of government. Traditionally, they believe in monarchy, and when they tried the republican form, they failed; hence they returned to monarchy or dictatorship. Spain's present government answers the character of the Spaniards. They have a leader, Francisco Franco, who is doing good for his country, and his successor might be a king as rumored. What I am trying to say is, that if a monarchical form of government is suited to our people, why not try it? If we need a dictator, let's have one. Except that if we would want a dictator, let him be a chosen one, and with a definite term of office. In this way we would preserve some essence of democracy which is what the majority of our people understand. As already pointed out, we have not yet fully mastered the intricacies of democracy. After some more years, perhaps, when we shall have mastered its intricacies, then we can return to democracy, if need be.

During the Japanese occupation our government was monarchical, and there was not as much lawlessness as there is now. Today, some people do not fear our law-enforcement agencies, because some government officials themselves abet crime for selfish reasons. What we need very badly now is respect for authority. We as a people lack national discipline. Some just interpret democracy and freedom as *license;* that is to say, freedom to do *anything they please* contrary to Apolinario Mabini's precept that liberty is freedom to do what is *right* and not wrong. This must be stressed thoroughly in the minds and hearts of our people. The teachings of our heroes, Rizal, Mabini, Osmeña and others, should be required and emphasized in our schools for the good of the growing and future generations. This is the only way to achieve our objective of training our people for a true democracy. If today we have a good number of incorrigible adults, for it is very hard to teach old dogs new tricks, let us start with our youths who constitute the hopes of the fatherland.

Second: Our two strong political parties, as they exist today, are not political parties in the Western sense of the word "party." The time may come when our people may need a third strong party to act as mediator or deciding factor in any election.

There is little or no difference between the two so-called parties we have now. Neither one has a definite program of government, nor a constitution; both have only rules and regulations. The consequence is that both parties are parties of personalities. I repeat that we have no true political parties. We have only political groupings which we might call as *maka-Marcos, maka-Villareal, maka-Villegas,* and others.

Our past records show that the so-called Colectivistas were nothing but the followers of Manuel L. Quezon; the Nacionalistas Pro-Independencia were but those of Osmeña and Roxas; the Nacionalistas (liberal wing) were those of Roxas. In the case of the latter, after the triumph of Roxas, he conveniently dropped the name Nacionalista, but preserved the name Liberal. What we now call Liberal Party was formerly Nacionalista. It is understandable, therefore, that there is no difference in the objectives of both Nacionalistas and Liberals.

One proof that the two parties are the same is the behavior of politicians to change party from Liberal to Nacionalista, or vice-versa. The cases of Ramon Magsaysay and Ferdinand Marcos are in point. Magsaysay was a cabinet member of Liberal President Quirino. He conveniently went to the Nacionalista under whose banner he won the presidency, not because he was a Nacionalista, but because he was Ramon Magsaysay, savior of our country. Ferdinand Marcos turned Nacionalista for selfish motives, that is, because he could not be nominated for president in the Liberal Party convention. He won the elections of 1965 not because he was a Nacionalista, but rather because he was Ferdinand Marcos whom the people thought would be a better president than Diosdado Macapagal. I am quite positive that if Marcos were the Liberal Party candidate he would have won the presidency just the same.

Political "turncoatism," therefore, has become a profitable business in this country. As a matter of fact there are several politicians now in Congress who have changed their parties as many as four or five times. During the Macapagal administration, in spite of the fact that the majority in the House was composed of Nacionalistas, by adroit maneuvering Cornelio Villareal became speaker of the Lower House. In the elections of 1965, the Liberals had a clear majority in the House of Representatives, yet for selfish reasons many of them turned Nacionalistas because the President was a Nacionalista. The House has for Speaker Jose B. Laurel, a Nacionalista. This is another proof that people vote for personalities and not for political parties.

And let us look at the Senate. In his desire to become its president, Gil J. Puyat entered into an unholy alliance with the Liberals which means that in spite of their being in the minority they control the upper chamber of Congress.

There must be a law prohibiting the changing of parties, that is to say, elected representatives and senators must stick to their party affiliations as shown by their certificates of candidacy. It is doubtful, however, whether Congress will approve such a legislation because it is very convenient to fly "from one flower to another that has a sweeter nectar." All these indicate that there are no true political parties except "partidos de conveniencia," "parties of personalities," I called them earlier.

When we were yet aspiring for independence, there existed true political parties: one for independence, immediate, complete and absolute; one for independence later; it would wait until greater progress and economic sufficiency had been attained. Since independence in 1946, true political parties disappeared from the national scene. All that remained are shadows of the old Nacionalista party.

If there are no true political parties today, then it is time to reorganize the two existing parties and establish new aggrupations with definite programs of government. Since the existing groups are almost evenly divided, as shown by their alternate control of the national government, there is a need for another group which, for lack of a better term, we may call "Independent Party." This is what Raul S. Manglapus has been trying to do.

This proposed party should not put up a candidate for president, but may do so for lower positions in the government. For president this group may select from the party candidates—one who would promise to work for the true welfare of the country, and not for the interest of his party. In this way the people's interest could be safeguarded.

After all, generally speaking, our people vote for persons and not for parties. In the 1961 elections when Macapagal was chosen president, a Nacionalista was the topnotcher in the senate race.

In the 1963 election, the topnotcher was Arturo M. Tolentino, although Gerardo Roxas found himself No. 1 on the list. He was being groomed as vice-presidential candidate in 1965. In the presidential race in the same year, in spite of the victory of Ferdinand Marcos, Jovito Salonga, a Liberal, obtained the highest votes for the senatorial candidates. This phenomenon was repeated recently when Benigno Aquino placed second among the senatorial aspirants. Perhaps, actually he should be first, although I cannot say for certain.

The results of the last elections is a good augury for what we have in mind—a third or independent party. A candidate without a party machine or organization can win in a national election provided he has a good reputation and an excellent record of public service, with sufficient funds to run an expensive campaign. Manglapus or any other leader may now succeed in organizing a third party.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I have ventured to present two possibilities in our political future. More than these two, I dare not.

Nationalism and Politics; Their Impact on Youth*

Ince Musa Bin Hitan

IF WE LOOKED AROUND ASIA TODAY, we would all agree upon one thing: The colonial powers which once furnished the local scenes are no longer here, and Asians are masters of their own destinies.

Even so, the Asian nationalist movements have not really ended. The colonial powers have moved out with the tide of history, but their imprints left many unhappy results that had jolted the native sentiment and set a chain of increasing nationalism.

This is mainly because to a large majority of the Asian masses, political freedom has not enabled them to get a better life. Everywhere there are grouses and resentment. Leaders who once rode joyously on the backs of expectant masses and drove out the imperialists are in turn condemned and blamed for their inability to alter the colonial economic structure.

It is easy to blame the leaders for their failures, but it is a little more difficult to understand the stranglehold that the colonial politico-economic structure has over the lives of most Asians.

The foundation of nationalism is in the emotional experience of people and their awareness of a common destiny. Nationalism gains momentum when a group of people realizes that they have the ability to change and control both the material and social aspects of their environment. In Asia, the national idea was conceived by those who suffered the change, but at the same time understood that others controlled the capacity of changing their conditions of existence.

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* Address delivered before the United Malays National Organization, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 27 November 1967.

In Europe, nationalism was linked closely with the economic changes and the ideas of progress that came in the wake of industrial development. In Asia, however, it would not be correct to relate the national movements to industrialization. The standard bearer of Asian nationalism is the man who is associated with the land.

Three factors have set the initial stage of a national idea in Asia, namely: — the introduction of modern economic methods; the crumbling of the old village economy; and the disruption of the traditional way of life. Regular supression, civil strife and religious fanaticism may have thickened the skin of many natives, but these alone had not developed what may be regarded as national consciousness.

The above factors brought about economic and spiritual dislocation and disturbed the former equilibrium. A new world, totally alien, was imposed upon the natives who were at once bewildered and did not quite know how to adjust themselves to the changing circumstances. It was a bigger world than the narrow circle of village life that they had been used to and the traditional authority no longer had a place in it.

At first the reactions were hardly more than the usual acts of dissatisfaction and desperation, frequently combined with religious fanaticism and cultural chauvinism. They were mostly local and colored by regional frictions and conflicts.

In a later phase, the western-educated natives, usually young men, began to apply the ideas and theories they had learnt to their own countries. They noted with disappointment the discrepancy between the ideals of democracy and actual practice by the colonial governments. Only those who served as instruments of the colonial administrative machinery and economic interest found life rewarding. To the vast majority, western civilization had only brought them misery and, rightly or wrongly, the newly awakened people related this state of affairs to the presence of foreigners. Henceforth, the colonial rulers became the object of ceaseless targets by local freedom fighters. The expulsion of these aliens became the chief goal and common preoccupation of all national movements.

It would be unnecessary here to state one by one the date of political independence of Asian countries. The important thing is that these countries are now steering their own destinies, and they are expected to rectify the misdeeds of the colonialists and usher in a new era of prosperity.

Since the majority of Asians are youth (over three quarters of them are under forty), these expectations are particularly felt among the young. They need educational and economic opportunities and they want to be disentagled from the semi-feudal way of life. They too desire a new kind of relationship with their former colonial masters and the advanced countries of the west.

The question that lies before us is to what extent these expectations are being met. An observer of the Asian scene today — by this I do not mean the Orientatists or Western apologists — has reasons to conclude that the new national governments have not been too successful in this sphere, at least for the moment. Some countries are moving in the right direction and their progress is fairly fast. For many others, economic salvation and social justice are still as remote as they were during colonial times. In such cases the new national governments are no more than cheap substitutes for the colonial ones.

In short, the leadership of the new governments of Asia is, in many places, a failure. Leaders who were once at the forefront in the movements for independence do not have the imagination to chart a new course for the process of nation-building. Or, they dare not depart from the old formula that had been so effective in driving out their colonial rulers. The end result is that we have governments which try to hang to power in an obstinate manner and are suspicious of all changes. When such a situation develops, the ancillary factors of corruption, exploitation and stagnation set in.

It is against these governments that the increasingly sophisticated young Asians expose their might. This has to be so because Asians can no longer afford to have governments whose very make-up discourage all forms of growth.

The Korean students' agitation against the Syngman Rhee government of a few years ago; the KAMI students' success in ousting the "order lama" — old order — of Sukarno recently, and various protest demonstrations against the national leaderships in other areas are but mere reflections of the frustrations of youth. Obviously people do not create disorder merely for the fun of it. Somewhere, there is something basically wrong that needs to be corrected.

Even so, it cannot be totally denied that in the midst of these confusions, there have been experiments in social and economic improvements. It is not for me to say which political system offers the best solution in this respect. It would be sufficient for me to state how far these experiments have met the wishes of young Asians.

As we are aware, the greater part of this continent is agricultural by character. The lives of a vast majority of Asians are bound up closely with land. There are pockets of industrialized areas, to be sure, but only a small minority are affected by them. The question of land is therefore no mean thing. Where the land policy is realistic, many are able to make a good living. Where there has been no change in the age-old land structure, peasants get but a bare subsistence.

The concentration of more land in fewer hands, the credit problem and its effects and the general low level of productivity in agricultural areas are but a few illustrations of the kind of thing that a national economic planning has to grapple with. Long after the colonial rulers had left the shores of Asia, few of the improvements envisaged by the new leaders have actually been realized. In many countries, the peasantry still remains in permanent bondage to the moneylender. As Jacoby in his book *Agrarian Unrest in Southeast Asia* has aptly pointed out, "the moneylender turns the small-holder into a tenant and the tenant into a landless farm laborer. Deprived of any bargaining power in the marketing of his produce and frustrated by his social degradation, the indebted farmer has no incentives and becomes indifferent to improvements on his land. The landlord, on the other side, acts frequently as moneylender, and if this is his main source of income, he is likely to calculate the rentability of his estate in terms of interest, due from his tenant rather than in terms of agricultural productivity."

It is not surprising, therefore, if rural youths decide that the town is a better place to live in. They leave the villages of their childhood and swarm the cities in great numbers. There are not enough jobs awaiting them. Social problems of every sort appear. Political leaders, social workers and economists discover that it is beyond them to solve this new problem. So they advise these youths to go back to their villages and even say that the rural areas have more economic opportunities, even though no development of any kind had taken place there either. For many of these youths, it is a defeat to go back empty-handed. Their parents want to see them make good in the town.

General poverty notwithstanding, the national revenue is often expended on projects which have nothing to do with the social and economic upliftment of the people as a whole. Projects which bring short-term pleasure — and long-term disaster — are undertaken with the belief that they are in fact improvements upon the colonial economic policies. For so long as the citizens are convinced that these will do them some good, the authorities remain secure. A time, however, will come when these people, which invariably means the young, want to know why such and such a project is built and why it cannot provide jobs. Only then would restlessness emerge.

Some national governments are more realistic and have more understanding of the problems that they have to contend with. It makes you feel good to watch their earnestness and their power of perseverance in the fact of the tricky business of nation-building. They provide a massive infrastructure necessary for development. Everywhere you see some building activity going on. There is not a day when a school or a community hall or a factory is not being opened.

Yet at the very moment that these activities are being undertaken, as in Malaysia, for example, students, lecturers and teachers keep pelting the government with an assortment of criticism. In the case of Malaysia, this is a healthy development for as long as those in power are receptive and sensitive to these criticisms, using them to advantage in the wider interest of national development. But a more fundamental question here is why is there restlessness as reflected in the criticism? The answer is that the rural people, steeped in traditions and shadowed as they are by a colonial past, have not responded immediately to and often fail to appreciate the government development efforts. As a result you have some people running away from land schemes established for them, people who trade away business licences given by the government and people who use the newly constructed roads merely to attend movies in towns.

Land schemes, business opportunities and roads are not wrong. What youths may do, however, is to assist hand in hand those in power to erase once and for all the outdated social institutions which are often the greatest roadblocks to development. We must remember from the start that this is not an easy task. Many Asian societies have had no intellectual revolution in the sense of the European experience, and the cultural level they have achieved is not enough to enable them to appreciate modern economic organization. Many Asian societies are still in the animistic stage, the feudal stage and the modern stage all combined in one, and to that extent development is made difficult. In such cases a bolder onslaught against the apathy of the traditional way of life becomes all the more important.

It is said that no society is safe with young unemployed lawyers around. This is also true of other young people who have received the benefits of education but cannot apply their knowledge in any worthwhile pursuit. In the traditional society, a jobless person is taken for granted and he is never allowed to go hungry. He has his parents or relatives to provide for his meals if he is too decrepit or too mean to work. But not so in modern society. The corporate life is a thing of the past. The newly implanted individualism of the West ensures that no uncles or cousins will come to your help in time of need. In short, you have got to work in order to live, and that means getting a job of some kind. You hope that the government's industrialization program might do something for you.

But for various reasons — lack of capital and skill, poor market conditions, conservative politics, discrimination and power of vested interest — youths find that there were very limited opportunities to find a place in this program. What else could they do than to demonstrate their frustrations and disillusionment.

You then hope that the advanced countries of the West will be so kind as to aid your country generously and lessen the economic burdens. The chances are that the politics of the advanced countries will not warrant such a handout. They have their balance of payments to protect and the voters to please. The prices for raw materials of the developing nations decline continuously. While the prices for the manufactured goods of the developed nations rise or remain the same. You find that your country is less and less able to provide the material comforts of living. So you dislike the people and the countries that give their dogs biscuits to eat whereas you, as human beings, can hardly have proper meals. So there you plant more seeds for bitterness and discontentment.

In those Asian countries where people can earn a decent living, and economic problems are not so much a plague, youths wants their governments to possess an independence of mind in dealing with foreign powers and in devising internal political policies. This is not to mean that countries with economic troubles do not desire such independence of mind. This is merely to bring home the point that a country which is economically sophisticated desire political sophistication as a sort of follow-up.

For young Asians today dislike to see their governments aping or allying themselves too closely with the Western powers. They want their countries to have an identity of their own and pursue an independent course in international affairs. Where it is believed that the ruling government has sold its interest for some doubtful returns, there are strong protests from youths. Thus an American president's visit to Japan was cancelled, the Philippines begins to look more towards Asia, and Malaysia prepares to trade with communist countries.

In the shaping of national political systems, I feel that mere transplanting of Western democracy, European socialism or Soviet communism will not do. Each political system has a history of its own and evolved under an environment peculiar only to itself, and cannot be adopted lock stock and barrel by other societies.

As an illustration, let us take a democracy in which almost every one has had some form of education. He has little problem in understanding and practising democracy. Even though freedom of speech and the press is his right, he does not impinge upon the liberty of others when he makes use of this freedom. He is not likely to exploit others because he knows that others are as educated as he is, and can easily detect his motive.

This cannot be held true of developing nations where mass education has not seeped into all strata of society. Under such circumstances, freedom of speech and the press become freedom tc exploit the ignorant as well as freedom to destroy responsible politics.

In the course of my speech you will have realized that I mentioned poor political leadership, unsuccessful economic and social policies and undignified relationship with the advanced countries as the causes of restlessness among youths. Also as indicated earlier, the Asia that we have today is a young Asia. What the youths think, their aims in life and the manner in which they react towards certain events will decide the fate of Asia itself and the way that it will go. Youth is that stage when a man is full of idealism and a little impatient of proven methods. He wants to test new grounds in the hope of finding once-and-for-all solutions to recurring problems of all kinds. With such a proportion of youths, Asia has no reason to be unduly pessimistic.

In fact, under the pressure of vocal student movements and increasingly sophisticated voters, sensational leadership is giving way to more pragmatic leadership. This change-over will not take place overnight, but the new signs are there. The Philippines, Malaysia and Singapore are heading in this direction. A while ago Indonesia has changed course and decided to face the realities of the present age.

In the field of social and economic improvements, more and more Asians begin to realize the need of high level planning and the important role of the State. A complex network of systems of State interference is necessary to prevent any region or social group from lagging far behind in development. If this is not done, the wealthier regions and social groups which are more effective in organizing their efforts will use their power and resources to stop the improvements of other regions or groups. Under the cumulative process, the poorer regions and groups will become poorer and the wealthier ones wealthier. The role of the State is therefore to break the social chasms and create a psychological, social and political situation conducive to development.

Land reforms must shatter the foundations of stagnant societies and raise agricultural productivity. This is where a government may not dare step in. There are toes to be stepped on, and each time a government does so it may reduce its popular support. This is especially true of a democracy in which the government draws its support from vested interests. Even then, for its own long-term interest, it has to undertake these reforms.

Facts show that no matter what the political system of a country is, the ruling elite is often aware of the need of having a land policy which can benefit the country. There have actually been reforms in certain areas; elsewhere piecemeal attempts are being made. Pressure by the nations' vocal groups have to be made against any administration that shows no sign of wanting to present a more dynamic land policy.

Reforms in land will have to release a substantial number of people from over-populated areas. Only persons who have economic functions of some sort may remain behind. Dependents or hangers-on have to be absorbed by the governments' industrialization program. For this, a government needs money. A planned saving must be instituted, foreign capital encouraged and prestige projects have got to go.

Training and education, constructive propaganda and the powerful hands of the state should enable the population to participate on a greater scale in the national development.

Fortunately for us the Asian youths of today do not suffer the inhibitions of their fathers. They were born in the modern world and have to stake in the old way of life. Many years hence Asians who were born in the colonial period will have died or submerged in the tide of young people. This will make for a better orientation of thought among Asians.

The new national development programs, given the right direction and factors, will alter the nature of international economic relations. Dependent economies which are a heritage of colonial adventures in these regions will slowly crumble so that, for many Asian nations, political freedom will have greater meaning. They do not have to develop nervous tensions every time and international market swings the prices of raw materials downward. They can increasingly look after themselves as the terms of trade will not forever be against them.

With economic independence, Asians will want a greater role in world politics. In fact, being young and vigorous and independent in mind, there is no reason why Asians ought not to shift the balance of power politics in their favour. Remember that the advanced and powerful countries of today were backward and weak countries of many years back.

It is true that there are endless paths to travel, dark corners to be exposed to light and lazy bones to be shaken in the process of putting Asia into the twentieth century and the century after that. Then you look at the radiant faces of youth and you are yourself radiated with optimism. You discover that the task of building a world that can provide for the future is not a hopeless task after all.

The Propaganda Movement and La Solidaridad[*]

Gregorio F. Zaide

THE HISTORY OF A NATION IS like the sea with its high tide and low tide. The high tide is the period of growth and achievement, when the people, responding to the challenge of their time, rise to greatness. The low tide is the period of stagnation, decadence, and sterile deeds, when the people ignore the challenge.

THE TIDES OF PHILIPPINE HISTORY

The first high tide in Philippine history occurred during our pre-Hispanic past[1] when our ancestors, liberty-loving and valiant scions of the Malay race, left their homelands in Southeast Asia, crossed the uncharted seas in their frail outrigger boats, and colonized our then unnamed tropical archipelago. Out of the jungle, they carved many independent village kingdoms (*barangays*) and, as free men, they carried on commercial and cultural relations with Asia's Great Traditions (India, China, and Arabia), Cambodia, Annam, Siam, and the Indo-Malay empires of Sri Vijaya and Majapahit.

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[*] Address delivered at the book-launching of *La Solidaridad,* held under the joint auspices of the University of the Philippines Press and the Philippine Historical Association at the National Library, March 8, 1967.

[1] Speaking of the Philippines in pre-Spanish times, Dr. Jose Rizal recounted: "At that time that sea where float the islands like a set of emeralds on a paten of bright glass, that sea was everywhere traversed by junks, *paraus, barangays, vintas,* vessels swift as shuttles, so large that they could maintain a hundred rowers on a side (Morga); that sea bore everywhere commerce, industry, agriculture, by the force of the oars moved to the sound of warlike songs of the genealogies and achievements of Philippine divinities." (*The Indolence of the Filipinos.* Derbyshire translation. An essay originally written in Spanish and published for the first time in *La Solidaridad*, (Madrid, July 15 to September 15, 1890.)

The low tide came in the 16th century when the Spanish conquistadores and missionaries conquered our land for God and Spain. Consequently, our people lost their freedom, their indigenous culture, and their Asian way of life.[2] In the 17th century the tide of our history commenced to surge due to the blossoming of Christianity and Latin civilization in our country, which our people had readily assimilated. The tide ebbed in the 18th owing to the troublous times (British conquest of Manila, Muslim wars, and native revolts), the seclusion of our country from foreign contact, and the economic retrogression. By the beginning of the 19th century the low tide receded and the high tide began to flow. The Philippines was then opened to world trade, industries and agriculture were improved, communication and transportation developed, and the colonial life quickened to the rising tempo of progress.

THE GENESIS OF THE PROPAGANDA MOVEMENT

Shortly after the mid-nineteenth century, the emerging high tide gathered momentum with Spain's blunder in executing the Filipino priests, Jose Burgos, Mariano Gomez, and Jacinto Zamora. Their martyrdom jolted our oppressed people from lethargy and awakened the dorman spirit of Filipino nationalism. On that fateful morning of February 17, 1872, as the church bells of Manila tolled a requiem to the three priests, the Filipino patriots, infused with hatred for the Spanish officials and deep sorrow for their martyred compatriots, consecrated their lives and fortunes to avenge their death and to combat the evils of Castilian misrule.[3] Thus said Rizal, through his hero Elias: "The sleep lasted for centuries, but one day the thunderbolt struck, and in striking, infused life. Since then new tendencies are stirring our spirits, and these tendencies, today scattered, will some day be united, guided by the God who has not failed other peoples and who will not fail us, for His cause is the cause of liberty!"[4]

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[2] "Then began a new era in the Philippines," said Rizal, alluding to the lamentable effects of the Spanish conquest, "The Filipinos gradually lost their ancient traditions, their recollections, — they forgot their writings, their songs, their poetry, their laws in order to learn by heart other doctrines, which they did not understand, other ethics, other tastes, different from those inspired in their race by their climate and their way of thinking. Then . . . they were lowered in their own eyes, they became ashamed of what was distinctly their own, in order to admire and praise what was foreign and incomprehensible; their spirit was broken and they acquiesced." (*The Philippines Within a Century*. Derbyshire translation. Originally written in Spanish and first published in *La Solidaridad,* September 30, 1889 to February 1, 1890.)

[3] Writing from Paris, April 18, 1889, to Mariano Ponce and the staff members of *La Solidaridad,* Rizal said: "Without 1872, there would have been no Plaridel, no Jaena, no Sancianco, no valiant and generous Filipino colonies in Europe; without 1872, Rizal would been a Jesuit now, and instead of writing *Noli Me Tangere,* he would have written the contrary. In view of these injustices

The Filipino patriots, including the deportees in foreign lands, college students, professionals, landlords, and employees, together campaigned for reforms. They were not violent revolutionaries who audaciously resolved to arms and plunged their country in a futile blood-bath. They were intellectuals and educated men, symbolizing the flower of Filipino manhood, who intended to fight for their people's welfare and happiness by means of pen and tongue. Accordingly, they launched the peaceful crusade for reforms, popularly known as the Propaganda Movement,[5] so-called because they worked to publicize the defects of Spanish colonization in the Philippines, including the brutal abuses committed by the Spanish officials.

The crusade for reforms was launched in Manila and in Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore, Madrid, Barcelona, Paris, London, and other cities of Europe where patriotic Filipinos resided.

THE PROPAGANDISTS: FILIPINOS AND FOREIGNERS

Most of the propagandists, or crusaders for reforms, were Filipinos. Towering among these, like a trinity of titans, were Marcelo H. del Pilar, said to be the best propagandist of them all; Jose Rizal, the greatest Filipino genius, endowed by God with many-splendored talents; and Graciano Lopez Jaena, the greatest orator of the Propaganda Movement. Other Filipino propagandists were Jose Ma. Panganiban, Mariano Ponce, the Luna brothers (Antonio and Juan), Felix Resurreccion Hidalgo, the Paterno brothers (Antonio, Maximino, and Pedro), Isabelo de los

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and cruelties, child that I was, my imagination was stirred, and I swore to dedicate myself to avenge these victims." (*Epistolario Rizalino*. Manila, 1931, Vol. II. p. 166.)

[4] *The Social Cancer,* p. 393.

[5] In our own times, the word "propaganda" has acquired an unsavory significance, for usually it may mean unscrupulous publicity of an ideology, such as "Soviet Propaganda," "American Propaganda," or "Red Chinese Propaganda", which is not a true image of what it tries to portray. For improvement of Philippine historiography, it is advisable to call the Propaganda Movement of Rizal's time as "Reformist Movement" or, in more sonorous semantics "Crusade for Reforms."

Reyes, Pedro Serrano Laktaw, Dominador Gomez, Moises Salvador, Jose Alejandrino, Jose Ramos, Apolinario Mabini, Andres Bonifacio, Jose A. Dizon, Jose Ma. Basa, and the Pardo de Tavera brothers (Trinidad and Felix).

Some foreigners, who were lovers of freedom and justice, supported the Propaganda Movement. Among them were Ferdinand Blumentritt, Austrian scholar and Rizal's best friend; Miguel Morayta, Spanish professor, historian, and former minister of the Spanish Crown; Francisco Pi y Margall, former President of the short-lived First Spanish Republic (1873-75), statesman and parliamentarian; Francisco Calvo Muñoz, former Spanish editor of the *Diariong Tagalog* and member of the Spanish Cortes (Parliament); Emilio Junoy, newspaper editor and member of the Spanish Cortes; Pablo Ortiga y Rey, Spanish official in Madrid, whose house was a favorite rendezvous of the Filipino reformists; and Manuel Ruiz Zorilla, Spanish parliamentarian and leader of the Republican Party.

REFORMS DESIRED BY THE PROPAGANDISTS

To cure the evils of Spanish rule and restore good government in the Philippines, the propagandists beseeched the Spanish Crown to grant the following reforms:[6]

1. Restoration of the Philippine representation in the Spanish Cortes. In previous times — in 1810-13, 1820-23, and 1838-37 — the Philippines had been given representation in the Cortes.
2. Equality between Filipinos and Spaniards before the law.
3. Filipinization or secularization of the Philippine parishes.
4. Promotion of primary education, without friar intervention, and appointment of qualified teachers with good salaries.
5. Establishment of schools of arts and trades in the capitals of the provinces.
6. Fair and speedy administration of justice to Filipinos and Spaniards alike.
7. Reform all branches of the colonial government and appoint only men of good character.

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[6] Graciano Lopez Jaena, *Discursos y articulos various* (Barcelona, 1891), p. 32-35. See also Encarnacion Alzona, *Rizal and the Reformists* (Manila, 1961), p. 7-9; and Esteban A. de Ocampo, *Rizal's Socio-Political Concepts* (Manila, 1961), p. 6-12

8. Civil service examinations for all seekers of government jobs, and these must be opened to Filipinos as well as to Spaniards.

9. Stop the maltreatment of the Filipinos by the government officials and the Guardia Civil.

10. Granting of human rights to Filipinos, such as freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of association, and right to petition for redress of grievances.

VORTEX OF REFORM CAMPAIGN IN SPAIN

The Propaganda Movement could not be effectively waged in the Philippines because of the atmosphere of obscurantism and despotism prevailing in the country. The Filipino people were denied the freedom of speech and the freedom of the press, which the Spaniards in Spain enjoyed through the Spanish Constitution of 1876. Such anomaly was denounced by Sinibaldo de Mas, Spanish diplomat-writer, who investigated Philippine conditions in 1842. "Why do we fall into such an anomaly," he bewailed, "such as combining our claim for liberty for ourselves, and our wish at the same time to impose our law on remote peoples? Why do we deny to others the benefit which we desire for our fatherland?"[7]

The Filipino-owned bilingual daily, *Diariong Tagalog* (Tagalog section edited by M. H. del Pilar and the Spanish section, by Francisco Calvo Muñoz), which was pro-Filipino in policy and sentiment, lasted only five months, from June 1 to October 31, 1882.[8] It is interesting to note that in its issue of August 20, 1882, Rizal's *Amor Patrio* appeared in both Tagalog and Spanish texts.

In Spain the political climate was favorable to the reform movement. Since the overthrow of Queen Isabel II from the throne by the Spanish Revolution of 1868, the abortive experiment at republicanism under the First Spanish Republic (1873-75),[9] the restoration of the Bourbon Dynasty under King Alfonso XII, "El Pacificador," in 1875, and the promulgation of the Constitution of 1876, liberalism reigned in the kingdom. The Spanish people, wearied by the tumultous revolutions and Carlist wars which had swept their land in previous years, settled down to rehabilitate their war-ravaged economy and to enjoy the blessings of liberalism. Cabinets rose and fell, owing to the unpredictable trend of Spanish politics, but Antonio Canovas del Castillo (Conservative) and Praxedes Mateo Sagasta (Liberal) managed to stay in power, alternating each other as prime ministers of the realm. The death of the good monarch, Alfonso XII in 1885 was followed by the regency of Queen Maria Cristina of Austria,[10] which was even more liberal, as evidenced by the establishment of universal manhood suffrage in 1890. The Republicans, headed by the three former Presidents of the First Republic (Pi y Margall, Salmeron, and Castelar), remained active in politics and were able to win some seats in both houses (Senate and Chamber of Deputies) of the Cortes. These Republicans, together with the Masons, helped the Filipino propagandists in their crusade for reforms.

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[7] Emma H. Blair and James A. Robertson, *The Philippine Islands,* Vol. LII, p. 89. This is the English translation of the rare vol. III of Sinibaldo de Mas, *Informe sobre el estado de las Islas Filipinas en 1842* (Madrid, 1843). For another English translation by Carlos Botor, see *Secret Report of Sinibaldo de Mas* (Manila, 1953; Historical Conservation Society).

[8] See Basilio Teodoro Moran (owner of *Diariong Tagalog*) to Jose Rizal, Manila, September 12, 1882, in *Rizal's Correspondence with Fellow Reformists* Manila, 1963), p. 6-7; Moran to Rizal, September 27, 1882, *op. cit.,* p. 15-16; and Moran to Rizal, Manila, January 15, 1883, *op. cit.,* p. 23-24. See also W. E. Retana, *El Periodismo Filipino* (Madrid, 1895), p. 248; and Jesus Z. Valenzuela, *History of Journalism in the Philippine Islands* (Manila, 1933), p. 41-42.

Due to the favorable atmosphere in Madrid and the friendly attitude of the Spanish liberals, Spain became the vortex of the Propaganda Movement. Therefore, Lopez Jaena, M. H. del Pilar, Justo Trinidad, and other persecuted patriots, fled to Spain where they found sanctuary from Spanish persecution in the Philippines. They joined the young students, notably Rizal, Ponce, Panganiban, Antonio Luna, the Paternos, Baldomero L. Roxas, Eduardo de Lete, and Maximo Viola in a common cause.

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[9] The First Spanish Republic had five Presidents during its brief existence, namely: (1) Estanislao Figueras, (2) Francisco Pi y Margall, (3) Nicolas Salmeron, (4) Emilio Castelar, and (5) General Ramon Serrano (Duke de la Torre). See Rafael Altamira, *A History of Spain*, (Toronto, 1949), p. 562; and J. M. Gomez-Tabanera, *A Concise History of Spain* (Madrid, 1966), p. 425-426.

[10] On May 17, 1886, seven months after King Alfonso XII's death, Queen Maria Cristina gave birth to his posthumous son, who later became King Alfonso III. She ruled Spain from 1885 to 1902, during the minority of Prince Alfonso. On May 17, 1902, Queen Regent Maria Cristina transferred the reins of government to King Alfonso XIII, who had come of age. (Gomez-Tabanera, *op. cit.*, p. 429-432, 463.)

EARLY ATTEMPTS TO UNITE THE REFORMISTS

During the early years of the Propaganda Movement in Spain the patriotic efforts of the reformists were handicapped by the lack of an organization which would unite them into a solid and coordinated body. There was too much individualism among them, too much *amor propio* and personal jealousies, and too much bickerings and individual differences.

The first attempt to unite the wrangling reformists was made by Juan Atayde, a Manila-born Spaniard and *comandante de infanteria.* In September, 1882, he founded in Madrid the *Circulo Hispano-Filipino* (Spanish-Filipino Circle) composed of Filipino propagandists and their Spanish friends. This new society held a grand ball on the night of December 31, 1882, wherein Rizal declaimed his poem, *Me Piden Versos* (They Ask Me For Verses), dedicated to its members. Unfortunately, this gay affair proved to be the *Circulo's* swan song, for the next day (January 1, 1883) it died out. The causes of its early demise were the shortage of funds and the lack of confidence of its members in their leader (Atayde), who was a Spaniard. Thus Rizal said: "The Spanish-Filipino Circle lived like Diogenes, looking for a man to direct it, and it died like Alexander with discord and confusion in his burial."[11]

Another Spaniard, Professor Miguel Morayta, attempted to unite the reformists by spearheading the formation of the *Asociación Hispano-Filipina* (Hispano-Philippine Association) in Madrid on July 12, 1888[12] Like the *Circulo,* the association did not prosper. Many Filipinos refused to support it because most of its members were Spaniards and its president (Morayta), though an honorable and worthy friend of the Filipino people, wished "to keep the Philippines for Spain as long as possible."[13] Rizal turned down Morayta's invitation to be a member of the association's board of governors; Llorente resigned as its treasurer; and E. Aguirre, Antonio Luna, and Valentin Ventura refused to join it.

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[11] See "Rizal's Speech Delivered at the Cafe Habanero, December 31, 1891," *Political and Historical Writings* (Manila, 1964), p. 29.

[12] Isabelo de los Reyes, *La Sensacional memoria sobre la revolucion filipina de 1896-1897* (Madrid, 1899), p. 83. According to Jaime C. de Veyra and Mariano Ponce, the Asociacion Hispano-Filipina was founded on January 12, 1889. (*Efemerides Filipina.* Manila, 1914, Vol. I, p. 39.) Evidently, they are wrong, for in a letter of Evaristo Aguirre, Madrid, November 4, 1888, to Rizal, he related the difficulties of the association, including Julio Llorente's resignation as its treasurer. (*Rizal's Correspondence with Fellow Reformists,* p. 222-224.)

[13] V. Ventura to Rizal, Paris, January 6, 1889, in *Rizal's Correspondence with Fellow Reformists,* p. 256.

The third organization of reformists was founded by, and composed of, Filipinos. It was called *La Solidaridad*. It was established in Barcelona on December 31, 1888, with the following officers: Galicano Apacible (Rizal's cousin), president; Graciano Lopez Jaena, vice-president; Manuel Santa Maria, secretary; Mariano Ponce, treasurer; and Jose Ma. Panganiban, auditor.[14] Dr. Rizal was unanimously chosen Honorary President. From London, Rizal sent his message, dated January 28, 1889, to the members of *La Solidaridad*, expressing his felicitations and offering his advice for the success of the society.[15] Not long after the joyous inauguration of *La Solidaridad*, it languished and died a natural death. Apparently, Apacible could not rally his compatriots under his leadership. He lacked the wondrous talents and prestige of his cousin, Rizal.

It was not until 1890 that the reformists were finally united and coordinated into a formidable body, and this was finally done thanks to Rizal's prestigious reputation and Plaridel's political sagacity.

FORERUNNERS OF LA SOLIDARIDAD

The early efforts of the reformists were also hampered by the lack of a periodical which would serve as an organ to combat the hostile Spanish newspapers, where the anti-Filipino articles of Pablo Feced (*Quioquiap*), Celso Mir Deas, Vicente Barrantes, W. E. Retana (*Desengaños*), and other enemies of the Propaganda Movement appeared. Usually, these periodicals, including *La Epoca* and *El Liberal* of Madrid and *El Deluvio* of Barcelona, never allowed the Filipino reformists to refute the defamatory articles.

It should be recalled that Lopez Jaena was the first among the Filipino propagandists who was able to publish articles in liberal Spanish newspapers, such as *Los Dos Mundos* and *El Pro-*

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[14] M. Ponce to Rizal, Barcelona, January 8, 1889, in *Rizal's Correspondence with Fellow Reformists*, p. 260.

[15] Rizal, "To the Members of *La Solidaridad*, London, January 28, 1889," in *Rizal's Correspondence with Fellow Reformists*, p. 268-269.

greso of Madrid and *La Publicidad* of Barcelona, in defense of our country and people.[16] He was fortunate to have access to these newspapers, because of his connections with prominent Spanish politicians.

The first periodical which the reformists founded in Spain was *Revista del Circulo Hispano-Filipino,* whose first issue came out in Madrid on October 29, 1882.[17] It was the organ of the Circulo Hispano-Filipino and was edited by Juen Atayde. Unfortunately, it failed to secure the support of many Filipinos because of its timid and monarchic policy, so that it perished in November, 1882 after its second issue.[18]

The second periodical of the reformists in Spain was *España en Filipinas.* It was a weekly published in Madrid and was financed by the reformists themselves. Its initial issue came out in March, 1887, with Eduardo de Lete as editor. Other members of the staff were: Julio Llorente, business manager; Pedro Govantes, in charge of political news; J. Gomez de la Serna, literary section; and Baldomero L. Roxas, scientific section.[19] Like the *Revista del Circulo Hispano-Filipino,* it failed to win the support of many Filipino reformists because of its conservative policy. Lopez Jaena openly attacked it. Llorente and Govantes quarreled with Lete and resigned from the editorial staff. The magazine died out in November of the same year. Later Lopez Jaena, Mariano Ponce, Antonio Luna, and other reformists attempted to revive it and offered its editorship to Rizal who, unfortunately, could not comply with their wish for he was busy in historical research in London.[20] For want of a competent leader to direct and edit the paper, *España en Filipinas* stayed dead.

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[16] Speaking of Lopez Jaena as the first Filipino reformist to have defended the Philippines in the newspapers of Spain, Dr. Alzona said: "Indeed he was the first of the reformists to undertake in Spain the defense of his country. When Rizal arrived (two years after Lopez Jaena's arrival in Spain — Z.), followed by Mariano Ponce and then Marcelo H. del Pilar, Lopez Jaena was already known in Spanish political circles as a journalist and orator, for often he spoke at republican meetings where his eloquence and felicitous phrases were universally admired." (*Op. cit.,* p. 12.)

[17] Retana, *Vida y escritos del Dr. Jose Rizal,* p. 72-73, note.

[18] Rizal sent the two issues of the *Revista del Circulo Hispano-Filipino* to his brother Paciano in Calamba on February 13, 1883. (*One Hundred Letters of Jose Rizal to His Parents, Brother, Sisters, Relatives.* Manila, 1959, p. 84.)

[19] Evaristo Aguirre to Rizal, Madrid, March 10, 1887, in *Rizal's Correspondence with Fellow Reformists,* p. 87-90.

[20] Ponce to Rizal, Barcelona, October 6, 1888, in *Epistolario Rizalino,* vol. II, p. 54 and Rizal to Ponce, London, October 12, 1888, *op. cit.,* vol. II, p. 55-56.

The failure of the two above-mentioned periodicals did not discourage the reformists in their search for a real organ. As the press attacks of the enemies increased, Lopez Jaena, founded at Barcelona on February 15, 1889, a fortnightly which he aptly named *La Solidaridad.* Its first issue appeared on that date, with himself as editor, and its last issue came out in Madrid on November 15, 1895, with M. H. del Pilar as editor. At long last, the Propaganda Movement acquired a formidable organ.

LA SOLIDARIDAD IN HISTORY

La Solidaridad is no more. Like all mundane things, it vanished on the wings of time . . . But its memory will ever linger not only on the pages of our history, but also in the hearts of our people, because of the mighty role it had played in our struggle for freedom. Happily for us, the University of the Philippines Press is publishing its English translation. More than a powerful weapon to combat the enemies of our people in the arena of ideas, it preserves for posterity the fadeless thoughts and writings of the cherished titans of our race — Rizal, Plaridel, Lopez Jaena, Mariano Ponce, Panganiban, Antonio Luna, and their comrades in heroism.

Truly, we can say that no student of history can understand and appreciate the thrilling story of our nation without reading *La Solidaridad,* and no historian can write our exciting struggle for freedom without consulting it. For *La Solidaridad* is, verily, a testament of Philippine Nationalism.

Book Reviews

1. The Politics of the Philippine Revolution *

Our forefathers had a different view of nationalism. To them, it meant a complete and necessary betrothal to nationhood and not a mere pretext, as it happens today, for escaping the haunt of present day realities. This haunt that comes with the continuous influx of foreign influences, although seemingly showing signs of fire and intensity has, regretfully, not gone beyond mere rhetorics and immaterial protestations: "Filipino first" policy, search for national identity, re-definition of national objectives, adoption of the Filipino language as medium of instruction, etc. One suspects that the movement would eventually come to a standstill.

But the pattern of social reorganizations is always dictated by the circumstances. Today, nationalism cannot be as definitive as during the time of our forefathers when social organization was at its inception and the movement was, therefore, vital to the construction of order in Philippine society. The predicament that the Filipinos found themselves in, then, would not allow for a constant postponement of action. They had to be real fighting nationalists. They had to establish an order, an identity, and fight for that identity they claimed to have established.

This book is an interpretative description of that effort to "construct order" in Philippine society. Order, as the author points out, "in the sense of uniting Filipinos by means of certain pre-conceived values and principles believed by their leaders to be most adequate for the happiness of the people: and order — in the sense of integrating Filipino society within a supreme coercive authority." The author is concerned with what the leaders of the revolution, generally coming from the educated class known as "Ilustrados", had to afford the masses in terms of guidance in their political conduct and in the promotion of their material and spiritual welfare.

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* A Review of Cesar A. Majul's *The Political and Constitutional Ideas of the Philippine Revolution*. Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press, 1967.

The discussion is quite comprehensive and systematic. A general historical sketch of the Philippine revolution preludes the more detailed analysis of the writings of the more important revolutionary thinkers and propagandists. The author has conveniently divided his discussion into eight sections which could be subsumed, however, under three key concepts, namely, freedom, authority, and religion. These were the subjects taken up in political and quasi-philosophical discourses by revolutionary leaders who voiced out and articulated the legitimate aspirations of the masses.

Despite the contention that the author takes the stance of a political theorist in the book, Majul is in no way formulating original theories, but expatiating on and bringing logical conclusions to the theories propounded by Rizal, Mabini, Jacinto, Calderon, del Pilar, Lopez-Jaena, and a host of other propagandists and revolutionary leaders. His book is not to be juxtaposed with Ricardo Pascual's *Partyless Democracy*, in terms of stylistic twists, approaches, and ideational content, as the latter seems to weld Philosophy, Political theory, and "Poetry" into one. Majul's lucidity and directness would not allow anticlimactic intrusions of statements like "Democracy is commonly regarded as a sort of political cake with beautiful white foamy frosting on the surface, all ready to serve." If ever he formulates theories, he gives them in the guise of factual and irrefutable statements — who would dispute the fact, for example, that " . . . Politics and life are so intertwined that it is difficult to anticipate what social elements are bound to accompany an apparently 'pure' political movement like that of independence."

The discussion of ideas of Freedom and its relative concepts is two-fold: one seen from the point of view of the individual himself and the other as a condition pervading society as a whole. Rizal saw it, thus: as an effort on the part of the individual to develop himself morally and intellectually which would render him capable of resisting the forces of tyranny and oppression and vindicating his legal and natural rights; and as a social condition in which there is concord between the people and the government in that the latter allows the former to develop their natural inclinations and self-respect.

Mabini and Jacinto infused the element of morality and the divine in their definitions, according to Hebraic-Christian tradition, saying that "true liberty" is always to be used for good and never for evil and that "Freedom is limited to actions that were reasonable." And the author underscores, although impassively, Rizal's belief that the persistence of tyranny is not the sole responsibility of the tyrant but also of those who submit to it for he "who submits to tyranny loves it."

The concept of Authority is tied up with the idea of law and government and is the ultimate basis of Order in society. The analysis of the problem revolves around thought-interpolations among revolutionary thinkers which culminated in the dispute between Mabini and Calderon over what form of governmental authority should prevail: a legislature or a dictatorship. For the most part, Mabini was the subject of Majul's discussion as he was conceded to be the brain of the revolution and the most able promulgator of revolutionary policies among other propagandists such as Calderon, Aguinaldo (who merely acted as a figurehead), and even Rizal whose conceptions were imaged mainly in hyphothetical situations.

Majul takes note of the fact that while Mabini advocates the supremacy of the president of the revolutionary government, Calderon, his most ardent rival, puts the president below both the legislature and the judiciary. And the author speculates — one does not know if he loves Mabini too much — because at the time the president of the revolutionary movement, Aguinaldo, was not an "ilustrado" like himself. In short, the author contends that Calderon's patriotic ardor was garbed in personal motives.

But his speculation is not without justification. When one realizes that Mabini only knew that dictatorship was at the moment expedient and more practical while believing in his heart, indeed, that a legislative set-up should prevail in time of peace, one understands why Mabini was the sincere altruist. Yet, the author would not feel like saying so.

Expatiations on ideas about Authority, law, government, and the revolution comprise the great bulk of Majul's discussion and, by no means, are evaluations of political and constitutional policies, like the one mentioned above, all there is in the book. A reader might also inquire into the justifications given for the revolution and Majul offers abstracts from the writings and manifest actuations of revolutionary thinkers, such as the "compact theory," the Roussean concept of "social contract," the idea of a moral government, etc., which he take up in contiguous relation with actual historical events.

A probing into the religious situation at the time rivets around the idea of a national church and the problem of the interaction between church and state. Most of the ideas expressed by the author regarding the religious controversy and friar abuses have already been said in the past but the author adds more data and documents without making, though, any significantly different conclusions. They are chiefly important in putting the problem in broader perspectives than what piecemeal discussions in the past have afforded.

Most often, the author does not give subjective statements, except through hints and suggestions, but leaves it to the reader to form his own opinion. He makes a clean dissection of issues and leaves them wriggling on the table without ever attempting to extirpate them completely, although he manages to list a suggestion: "Could it be possible, then, that some Filipino revolutionary leaders were thinking of the same end, but with contradictory techniques?" Pascual, on the other hand, could make bold though queasy syllogisms: "Society has at last realized that politics is for society's sake. But party politics and politics for politics's sake are the opposite poles of the axis of contradiction. There is no excuse for politics but society; hence, it must be a partyless politics or no politics at all. It cannot be a party politics without being politics for politics's sake." Majul does not confuse Political Science with Philosophy, nor does he, in the manner of Agoncillo (*The Revolt of the Masses*), confound emotion with historical objectivity. His critical interpretation of the works is almost flawless and every idea is taken up with searing piquancy that is not at once felt until the reader contemplates his own evaluation of the matter presented. The shortcoming of the method, if it may be considered a shortcoming at all, is that it does not provoke nor hold the interest of the reader with as strong a grip as exerted by a book on history

— or is it "historical fiction"? — by Agoncillo, for example. But one realizes that Majul is taking up historical truth and truth in history must necessarily be interpreted and evaluated with historical objectivity.

Aside from its historical import, the book also assumes relevance to contemporary situations by providing political and historical references to movements that continue to permeate our political and economic life. The Philippine society has constantly been witness to mass rallies and demonstrations against foreign infiltrations, particularly the proverbial American imperialism, that have not really bore considerable results. The book explains why movements and propaganda would not be fruitful; why ideas, in whatever articulate manner they are presented, are doomed to be, as the author points out, mere "ad hoc rationalizations [that would arise] after the upheavals."

— NONILON V. QUEAÑO

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2. Politics in the PMA

Coinciding with the opening of the XXth World Medical Assembly held in Manila for the first time, the book on the Philippine Medical Association (PMA) authored by Robert B. Stauffer was issued by the University of the Philippines Press. As host of the gathering of world doctors, the PMA would find this publication a timely historical and political account of the association. Here Stauffer traced the early beginnings of the PMA, its formal organizational set-up, its declared policies, and its social and political influence in society.

Brief glimpses as to how the PMA began as an association composed of a few medical practitioners in Manila during the American regime are shown. Small in number, the group had but little role in the making of public policies on health measures until it grew to a politically potent association now called the PMA. The Americans controlled a greater part of its leader-

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* A review of Robert B. Stauffer's *The Development of an Interest Group: The Philippine Medical Association.* University of the Philippines Press, Quezon City, 1966.

ship which was later turned over to Filipino doctors upon the gradual change of the country's political structure.

But American dominance over the founding of the organization, solidly strong as it was then, still pervades the character of the PMA today. This can be gathered from the nature of the PMA's charter, its adopted medical code of ethics, and its stand on public issues like public health and regulation of medicine and private practice.

Stauffer pioneers with the first tightly woven study on a single interest group in the country. His research amply supplements general studies on the importance of interest groups in our political process. Before then only scattering analysis of classes of pressure groups in Philippine politics and decision-making were found.

The author recognizes that interest groups have definite parts in national political development and that by describing them we gain an insight into the nature of the political system. With this as an aim, Stauffer ventured to make this study and chose the PMA as a group that vigorously pulsates with national political life. The PMA was selected for a number of reasons, foremost of which is the fact that doctors are held in high esteem in the Philippines and have a powerful role in a nation seeking and undergoing social changes.

The internal structure of the PMA was initially a simple form which finally grew into its present complex and large machinery. Normally, policy decisions come from the House of Delegates which meets annually, while the administrative affairs are delegated to the Executive Council. As it turns out, Stauffer reveals that actual power resides in the latter and is centrally manipulated in Manila. Its presidential post becomes the focus of ambition from among members who are political activists. Members who aspire for the presidency usually do so for reason of fame, personal prestige, travel, aside from the realization that it is a stepping stone to a cabinet position or an elective office.

Stauffer also offers a discussion on the intense political struggles and activities from within the PMA. He unveils the rivalry for power among the Old Guard of the PMA and the emerging young vigorous leaders, as well as factions of physicians coming from various medical schools and religious groups, and the pitting of rival forces between the provincial chapters against Manila-based doctors.

The result of the struggle among political blocs lead the PMA to respond to partial changes such as decentralizing and democratizing the use of power in the organization. Although there are staid procedures for operating the association and reconciling conflicts, personal relations and friendship combines with the formal rules, thereby reducing the "dangers of formalism." Like its national counterpart, politics in the PMA is saturated with alliances, factionalism, regionalism, and personal relationships.

Three chapters deal separately with communications of the PMA with elected officials, the bureaucrats and the publics. The PMA has employed intricate and subtle channels of communications with government officials and its clientele in promoting its own institutional interests. Stauffer look the task of describing the "various lobbying approaches used by the PMA with different national officials, and of changes, if any, that have taken place in these techniques." The PMA realizes that since the "government is most open to influence through its elected officials working at its center," strategies and techniques of lobbying for its goals have been directed towards the central government.

A permanent public relations program has been devised to maintain contacts with the general public and other allied medical groups.

As a result of his observation on the PMA, Stauffer hints that there has been a shift in the location of power in the country from that which was purely concentrated in the hands of the executive to that which is counterbalanced by the legislature. Another observation is that there is no formal rigid relationship between the association and the bureaucracy, particularly the Department of Health, since most often personal ties and other informal means bind the two. In a way this reflects the very essence of Philippine political practices at present.

The PMA has contributed its own share in nation-building through its many successful attempts at professionalizing medical practice. It has sought to raise the standard of medical education through the limitation of the number of medical students in private universities and the requirement of a compulsory four-year undergraduate degree; initiated the adoption of a modified code of ethics in a public law; kept the alert over unethical practices and against "quacks"; and sponsored advertising programs and projects designed to improve the practice of medicine.

However, there were abortive pressures at work together against the attempts of the PMA to upgrade the medical profession. This the association had to adroitly overcome over the years.

One issue that confronts the PMA is the government's public health service which competes with private practitioners. Alternative proposals have been raised so as to settle the opposing objectives and methods of the association and the government. To this end, a workable pattern exists between the two with the conflict still remaining as a dormant irritant.

An opinion survey of 350 doctors all over the country was conducted to determine the "reactions of various categorical groups within the PMA leadership, policies, etc." The views of the physicians on such a crucial matter as "socialized medicine" or power distribution in the PMA are reflected in the sample survey. Its findings proved to be embarrassing to the PMA; hence, the survey had to be inconspicuously appended in the last part.

On the whole, Stauffer presents a factual and broad study of an interest group and its function in a transitory society. What the PMA has achieved so far augurs well for the sustenance of the political process, but what Stauffer recounted should be taken merely as a splice of Philippine politics and not a sweeping nor comprehensive analysis. — PRESCILLA NAVARRO

More Documents on the Japanese Occupation of the Philippines, V

Compiled by Mauro Garcia

Report of the Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare

Philippine Executive Commission
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, HEALTH, AND PUBLIC WELFARE
Office of the Commissioner

Manila, April 30, 1943

Sir:

Pursuant to the letter of the Honorable, the Executive Secretary to the Commission, dated March 19, 1943, I have the honor to submit herewith a summary of the activities and accomplishments of the bureaus and offices under this Department for the period from January 23, 1942 to March 31, 1943.

Very respectfully,
(Sgd.) Claro M. Recto
Claro M. Recto
Commissioner

His Excellency
The Chairman of the Executive Commission
Manila

ANNUAL REPORT COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, HEALTH, AND PUBLIC WELFARE

Before the outbreak of the war the Department of Public Instruction and the Department of Health and Public Welfare were separate entities. The Department of Public Instruction had under it the Bureau of Education, the National Library, the Bureau of Physical Education, the Office of Private Education and the Office of Adult Education. The Department of Health and Public Welfare had under it the Bureau of

Health and the Bureau of Public Welfare. These two departments remained separate until the promulgation of Executive Order No. 4 which combined these two departments into one. This reorganization was provided for in Article VI of Executive Order No. 4, as follows:

> Sec. 36. The Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare shall perform its functions under the executive authority of the Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare who shall have executive supervision and administrative control over the Bureau of Public Instruction, Bureau of Private Education, Bureau of Physical Education, Bureau of Health, Bureau of Public Welfare, University of the Philippines, National Library, Institute of National Language, and the Philippine General Hospital."

The University of the Philippines, the Philippine General Hospital, the Institute of National Language, and the former Quezon Institute, which were independent entities, were likewise placed under the Department. There are at present in the Office of the Commissioner, 55 employees as against 61 in the Office of the Secretaries of the former Departments.

There are two new sections in the organized Department proper. One of them is the Japanese-Filipino Cultural Relations Committee.

JAPANESE-FILIPINO CULTURAL RELATIONS COMMITTEE

This Committee was organized in July, 1942 with the aim of making studies on Japanese and Filipino Culture which will serve as basis for a better understanding between the two countries.

1 — Studies Completed

The following studies were completed by the Committee:

1. A Century of Cultural Intercourse between Japan and the Philippines.
2. An Approach to Curriculum Development for a Life-Centered Program in the Elementary Grades.
3. Ancient Culture.
4. Anecdotes on Rizal (First Series).
5. Asian Civilization in the Philippines.
6. Bibliography on Ancient Philippine Culture.
7. Cultural Lessons from Nippon.
8. Culture and Civilization.
9. Developing Character as a Way of Life: A Study in Spiritual Renovation.

10. Facts and Ideas About Philippine Education.
11. Famous Filipino Women.
12. Hindu-Malayan Culture of our Forefathers.
13. Let us Avoid the Vices of the Occidentals.
14. Manifestations and Proofs of Filipino Virtues as Gleaned from Various Sources.
15. Outline of An Exhibition of Ancient Philippine Culture.
16. Philippine Education under Spain and America (Draft Report).
17. Project on Philippine Culture.
18. Recommendations on the Plan of Spiritual Renovation and Cultural Relations.
19. Rizal as a Model Public Servant (First Part).
20. Some Similar Legends of the Japanese and the Filipinos.
21. Some Similarity in the Traditions and Customs of the Japanese and the Filipinos.
22. Steps Taken by Japan to Help the Filipinos Liberate Themselves from Occidental Bondage (First and Second Steps).
23. The Bamboo Organ of Las Piñas.
24. The Educational Program of the Commonwealth Government (Draft Report).
25. The Historical Background of Japan-Philippine Relations.
26. The Mark of our Originality.
27. Virtues Reflected in *Awits* and *Corridos.*

2 — Studies in Progress

The following are studies in progress:

1. A Brief History and Development of Hygiene and Public Health in the Philippines from Pre-Spanish Days.
2. A Comprehensive Bibliography of Philippine Education: Pre-Spanish to the Present.
3. A Source Book on Japanese Education.
4. A Source Book on Philippine Education.
5. Anecdotes on Rizal (Second Series).
6. Asian Culture and Civilization.
7. Coins and Coinage in the Country of Ma-yi.
8. Data About Patriotism Obtained from our "Awits and Moro-Moros."
9. Ethical, Cultural, and Commercial Relations of the Japanese and the Filipinos.

10. Filipinos During the Pre-Spanish and Spanish Times.
11. Hindu-Malayan Culture of the Filipinos.
12. Japanese and Filipino Proverbs.
13. Parallelism Between Japanese and Filipino Culture.
14. Philippine Education Under Spain and America (Final Report).
15. Rizal as a Model Public Servant (Continuation).
16. The Educational Program of the Commonwealth Government (Final Report).
17. The Final Step Taken by Japan for the Emancipation of the Filipino People.

SECTION ON THE PREPARATION OF A GRADED WORD LIST IN THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE

This is a new section organized on July 1, 1942 to prepare a Graded Word List in the National Language. It is composed, for the most part, of teachers and employees who were laid off from th eBureau of Public Instruction. It is charged with the specific duty of preparing a Graded Word List in the National Language for the Primary Grades. As its activities multiplied and as the Graded Word List was almost finished, additional members were taken in to prepare a Course of Study in the National Language for Teachers in Grades I to IV and to write a series of texts in reading and in language for Grades I to VI.

1 — Functions and Duties

The Section has for its function the preparation of textbooks, courses of study, and other curriculum materials in the National Language. More specifically, it performs the following functions:

1. To prepare a Graded Word List in the National Language for the Primary Grades.
2. To compile a Filipino Language-Japanese-English Dictionary.
3. To write texts in reading and language for Grades I to VI in the National Language.
4. To prepare teachers' manuals in reading and language.
5. To write a Course of Study in the National Language for Teachers in Grades I to IV.
6. To prepare handbooks on the habits and character traits of Rizal for use in the proposed Kabataang Maka-Rizal or Rizal Youth Movement.
7. To prepare briefs on the character traits of Filipino heroines.

2 — Work Accomplished

The following materials have already been completed:

1. SI LUNA AT SI BENITO, Unang Aklát, *Mga Babasahin Tungkól Sa Ugaliín Sa Pamumuhay Ng Mga Pilipino.* (Filipino Language Reader for Grade I. This has already been approved by the Institute of National Language, by the Assistant Commissioner, and by the Commissioner. Of the 275 illustrations to be included, 168 sketches have already been finished.)
2. ANG BUHAY KUBO NINA NENE, Ikalawang Aklat, *Mga Babasahin Tungkol Sa Ugaliin Sa Pamumuhay Ng Mga Pilipino.* (Filipino Language Reader for Grade II. Already gone over and approved by Commissioner Osias. It is still to be approved by the Institute of National Language and Commissioner Recto. Illustrations have not been started).
3. ANG MAGSASAKA AT IBA PANG KWENTO, Ikatlong Aklát, *Mga Babasahín Tungkol sa Ugaliin Sa Pamumuhay Ng Mga Pilipino.* (Filipino Language Reader for Grade III. This is still in the form of first typewritten draft. The stories have already been gone over by Commissioner Osias. No illustrations have been started).
4. ANG MABUTING PILIPINO, Ikaapat na Aklat, *Mga Babasahin Tungkol Sa Ugaliin Sa Pamumuhay Ng Mga Pilipino.* (Filipino Language Reader for Grade IV. This is still in first draft form, typewritten, and has not as yet been gone over by the Institute of National Language, by Commissioner Osias, nor by Commissioner Recto. It has, however, been edited. No illustrations have been started).
5. *Graded Word List in the National Language for the Primary Grades.* This has already been gone over by the Institute of National Language, by the Assistant Commissioner, and by the Commissioner.
6. *Course of Study in the National Language for Grades I to IV, Teachers' Course.* This has already been gone over by the Institute of National Language. It is still to be retyped to embody the suggestions of the Institute before it is forwarded to the two Commissioners for approval.
7. *Teachers' Manual in Grade I Reading.* The rough draft in long hand has already been finished and gone over for criticisms and suggestions. It will have to be typed and edited before it is

ready for submission to the Institute of National Language and to the two Commissioners. It will consist of approximately 405 pages and 207 illustrations.

8. *Rizal as an Artist.* This is now in final typewritten form consisting of 79 pages.

3 — Work Under Way

The following are under way and parts of them have already been completed, as indicated below:

1. *Filipino Language Reader for Grade V.* Sixty stories have already been written in rough draft form, and thirty-five (35) have already been checked and edited. Twenty more stories are to be written.
2. *Filipino Language Reader for Grade VI.* Of the sixty-five (65) stories to be included in the book, sixty (60) have already been written in rough draft form, and thirty-five (35) of these have already been checked and edited.
3. *Teachers' Manual in Reading for Grade II.* Only 31 pages, in long hand, have been finished.
4. *Teachers' Manual in Language for Grade I.* The general outline of the Manual and 28 lessons covering 40 pages in long hand have been finished.
5. *Filipino Language-Japanese-English Dictionary.* The first and second parts of the book have already been typed and checked. The words for the third part are being arranged alphabetically.
6. *Graded Word List for the Intermediate Grades.* The words for Grade V have already been selected and carded. They will still have to be retyped and edited. The words for Grade VI are being carded.
7. *Handbook for Use by the Rizal Youth Movement, Ages 9 to 13.* The following have been finished: poem for the Junior Rizalists, aims of the Rizalists, song of the Rizalists, organizations of trait families, classification of briefs according to trait families, situations based on the aims of the Rizalists, sample development of a trait. More briefs will have to be gathered and classified before the booklet is written up.
8. *Handbook for Use of the Rizal Youth Movement, Ages 14 to 20.* Briefs on the habits and character traits of Rizal have been carded

and classified according to trait families. More briefs will have to be reclassified before the booklet can be written.

9. *Briefs of Filipino Heroines.* The character traits of 21 prominent Filipino women have been carded and classified according to a number of trait families. Further readings and briefings will still be made.

BUREAU OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

Public schools were authorized to open beginning June 1, 1942. A total of 714 primary and 513 intermediate schools with enrollments of 208,853 and 59,924, respectively, were reported by the field to be in operation as of March, 1943. Because some of these are not complete elementary schools, the total of 714 appears in excess of the 700 complete elementary schools authorized by the budget. Additional 500 detached teaching positions were allotted to different divisions on December 1, 1943, for the purpose of opening more classes in schools already in operation where many pupils could not be accommodated for lack of teachers, or to open barrio schools.

In all reopened primary and intermediate schools, instruction has been conducted under the two-single-session plan. The maximum enrollment under one teacher has been raised to 120 pupils, 60 reciting in the morning and the other 60 reciting in the afternoon. Before the war the maximum enrollment was 80 per teacher.

In filling the positions created by the reopening of the elementary schools, teachers were selected on the basis of their records and efficiency ratings. Only the most experienced and capable teachers with high academic attainments and Civil Service eligibility were appointed, except in localities where teachers with high qualifications were not availabl.e

The Bureau took steps to have the teaching personnel learn the basic principles of education enunciated in Order No. 2 of His Excellency, the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces. The teachers were called to conferences for the purpose of understanding fully the significance of the new basic principles of education.

To train teachers for the new order, a Normal Institute was created in Manila. Two institutes have already been held; the first from September 1 to December 11, 1942, and the second from December 21 to March 31, 1943. The graduates have been assigned to teach Nippongo in primary and intermediate schools. In addition to these Filipino teachers of Nippongo, 37 Japanese teachers have been given assignments by the authorities of the Military Administration to help teach Japanese in the elementary schools.

The curriculum for the elementary and secondary schools have been revised. Nippongo has been added as a 20-minute subject in each elementary grade and as a 40-minute subject in all years of the general and agricultural secondary schools. The Filipino Language has been allotted two 40-minute periods a week in all the four secondary years, while in the elementary grades it is being taught as fast as conditions warrant. It is taught twice a week in Grades V and VI in places where qualified teachers are available, the time having been taken from the allotment for language instruction in English. Social science courses have been dropped from the elementary curriculum. A new subject named Home and Community Membership is allotted 25 minutes a day in the primary grades and 30 minutes in the intermediate. In the secondary schools English is offered two 40-minute periods a week in all the four years. One 40-minute period a week is devoted to Character Education in the secondary years. This subject is taught also in the elementary grades with Citizenship Training and Health Education. The first course in Algebra, which was offered in the First Year previously, is now a Second Year subject. Advanced Algebra and Geometry are Third Year subjects in the revised secondary curriculum. Biology, formerly a Third Year subject, is now given in the Second Year. Elementary Chemistry is a new subject in the Third Year. Economics is the only course in the field of social studies that has been approved.

Under the new secondary school program, a week is composed of 34 40-minute periods in all the other years. Vocational or home-economics courses, two periods a day (except on Saturdays when one period is required), is compulsory for all, while this new secondary curriculum is vocational in character, yet it contains a provision that would enable students who desire to go to college to take all the subjects require for admission thereto.

The following materials have been completed by the Bureau of Public Instruction: (1) Tentative Guide in Home and Community Membership; (2) Tentative Guide in the Teaching of the Filipino Language for Grade V; (3) Tentative Guide in the Teaching of the Filipino Language for Grade VI; and (4) Course of Study in Character Education and Citizenship Training. The last one has been completed but is still under further study.

Textbooks for the elementary, the academic high school, the secondary grade, and the agricultural high school have been examined. Pending at this time is the examination of the textbooks in the vocational and home economics courses of the newly-approved general secondary curriculum. Books and other publications in school libraries have also been examined and the work is still going on. About 90 per cent of all the titles have already been examined.

Recommendations were made for the use of certain supplementary readers, though prohibited for use in schools. Only supplementary readers written by Filipinos have been recommended. A total of 45 supplementary readers for the elementary grades were examined but only 27 were approved by the Military Administration.

Effective this year the public schools adopted the all-year-round plan. Under this plan the school year has been lengthened from about 40 weeks to 48 weeks. Four vacations of one week each is allowed in between terms. There are four terms to the school year, which starts in June and ends in May of the following year.

The first agricultural schools opened were the Trinidad Agricultural School and the San Carlos Agricultural School. Later in the year the opening of ten other agricultural schools was approved. They are located in Langañgilang, Abra; Batac, Ilocos Norte; Cabanuangan, Isabela; Muñoz, Nueva Ecija; Magalang, Pampanga; Indang, Cavite; Pili, Camarines Sur; Catarman, Samar; Baybay, Leyte; and Malaybalay, Bukidnon. The agricultural schools in Samar, Leyte, and Bukidnon could not be opened, however, due to lack of facilities.

Two high schools in Manila will soon be opened — one for boys and the other for girls. Two high schools in Baguio have been opened while one in Davao is expected to open soon.

Numerous problems have been met during the past year. It has not always been possible to open schools as fast as was desired in many provinces. The attendance of pupils has not always been satisfactory because of disease, the poor economic condition of many familities, the high cost of living, the lack of wearing apparel, the scarcity of supplies, and other reasons. Yet conditions are fast improving and will, it is hoped, soon return to normal.

BUREAU OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

Partly because of the effects of war and partly because a new order was being ushered in, classes in private schools were not resumed until definite instructions were received from the Japanese Military Administration. In the case of private schools these were generally authorized only after the public schools had received their authority.

Generally speaking, only applications from schools in operation before the outbreak of the war were honored, provided they complied with the requirements of the new order. This necessitated a careful checking of the conditions prescribed for the reopening of schools, namely, (1) that the school was in operation before the war; (2) that the building is not occupied by the Japanese military authorities; (3) that the basic principles of education promulgated by the Japanese Military Administration are followed by the teachers and imparted to the pupils; (4) that only textbooks approved by the Japanese Military Administration are used by the pupils; (5) that the courses of study prescribed for public schools are followed by the private school; (6) that religion is not included in the program of the school; and (7) that no enemy nationals and only those with proper qualifications, are allowed to teach in the private school. These conditions were not only checked before the permit was granted to a school so that the latter could duly operate, but that they formed the cardinal principles upon which subsequent school inspection was based, in addition to the supervision, inspection, and regulation which the present law requires in order to determine the efficiency of instruction given in private schools and colleges.

After going over the number of schools which have met the requirements prescribed by the Japanese Military Administration for reopening, the following table (Table I) which gives the courses authorized, the number of permits granted, number cancelled, courses operating, and the enrollment is presented:

TABLE I

Course	Number of Permits Granted	Number of Permits Concelled	Courses Operating	Total Enrollment
Kindergarten only	14	3	11	16,803*
Elementary with Kindergarten..	151	25	126	
Secondary	18**	—	18	2,704*
Special Vocation	44	2	42	3,259
Medicine	2	—	2	585
Pre-medic	1	—	1	191
Technical	1	—	1	477

Conservatories of Music	5	—	5	536
Nursing	2	—	2	82*
Total	238	30	208	24,637

* Partial data only are given. The elementary schools from the Visayas and Mindanao have not been heard from; the returns from secondary schools will not be completed until after the close of the enrollment period; the same reason holds true for schools of nursing.

** Three of these are emergency permits.

A detailed table giving information on the number of special vocational schools opened, the nature of the courses offered in these schools, the tuition fees charged per course, and the number of students enrolled is given separately for boys (Appendix I-a) and for girls (Appendix I-b) in the appendix. The data given in the same are self-explanatory.

In order to carry out the purposes of the law to the fullest extent, the personnel of the Bureau of Private Education fulfilled the following duties also:

(1) They administered tests to schools from time to time to determine the standard of efficiency of each school;

(2) They checked the records of students who are candidates for graduation from the secondary and various collegiate courses to ascertain if they have taken and successfully passed all the subjects prescribed for each curriculum;

(3) They verified the school calendars and school programs to find out whether the schools meet the requirements prescribed for the carrying out of such calendars and programs;

(4) Organized an institute on home and community membership activities where teachers in private schools may obtain the desired training, considering the fact that in the past this phase of school work, for want of trained personnel, could not be carried out to the fullest extent;

(5) Participated in a national exhibit of products from home and community membership activities;

(6) Organized a series of conferences for faculty members of private conservatories of music which acted on the following points:

(a) Prescribed minimum entrance and graduation requirements.

(b) Accepted the principle that no one should be allowed to graduate from a conservatory of music without having graduated from a secondary course.

(c) Took definite steps to construct a course of study in Philippine music for the various departments of a conservatory of music.

(d) Laid down workable definitions of curricular terms used in conservatories of music.

(e) Standardized titles, diplomas, and certificates to be issued by conservatories of music.

(f) Included in their music curriculum the teaching of Oriental music, with emphasis on Philippine and Japanese music.

(g) Formed an association called Musical Culture Association.

(7) Organized a series of conferences among kindergarten teachers in private schools for the purpose of arriving at desirable standards in purpose, procedure, and goals and in instructional materials and equipments;

(8) Laid down the basis for the making of a course of study in elementary drawing for private schools as well as the courses of study in orchestral music and elementary chemistry for secondary schools;

(9) Conducted an investigation on which procedure is more economical, from the view point of the learner; to study Pathology first before studying Physical Diagnosis or to study both subjects simultaneously, that is without any reference to correlative order.

In addition to the above-listed activities, the Japanese Military Administration assigned directly from time to time special work to the Bureau of Private Education, among which may be mentioned the following:

(1) Reporting on private school buildings which are owned by enemy nations. These reports require that the nationality of the owner be ascertained. This work involves looking into the records of the Register of Deeds, the Municipal Treasuries, as well as those of the Church to ascertain whether the property is ecclesiastical or civil.

(2) Reporting on the classification of schools by denominations. This work requires calls on each denominations to determine the religious order of the owner and the faculty of the school.

(3) Reporting on the Japanese classes being conducted in private schools.

(4) Reporting on the number of pupils, classified by grades and sex, enrolled in private schools before and after the outbreak of the war.

(5) Reporting on the number of teachers by grades before and after the outbreak of the war.

(6) Reporting on the classification of schools by courses before and after the outbreak of the war.

The Japanese Military Police and those assigned in the City Hall also asked from time to time data on enrollment of schools, the ownership and location of certain school buildings, and courses offered, as well as list of members of the faculty of schools. Occasionally, other information sought was of a confidential nature.

A most responsible and at the same time heavy assignment given the Bureau of Private Education by the Japanese Military Administration was that embodied in Order No. 11 of the Director General of the Japanese Military Administration dated April 17, 1942 on the censorship of supplementary readers and library books. Because of the magnitude of the task on the one hand and the absence of adequate not to say trained personnel for this work on the other hand, only the following, indicated in Table II, could be accomplished thus far:

TABLE II

DATA ON THE EXAMINATION OF SUPPLEMENTARY READERS

Number of supplementary readers submitted by the private schools for examination			1136
Number of books included in the Public School List		681	
Number of books which are duplicate of those previously examined.		377	
Number of books on which action was taken.		78	
		1136	
Number of books approved.	13		
Number of books disapproved.	22		
Number of books approved with parts to be eliminated.	43		
	78		
Number of supplementary readers in the library of the Bureau of Private Education.			174
Number of books included in the Public School List.		130	
Number of books on which action was taken.		44	
		174	
Number of books approved.	4		
Number of books disapproved.	14		

Number of books approved with parts to be eliminated.	26	
	44	
Grand Total		1310

During the period under review, the Bureau was fortunate in securing new positions which considerably strengthened the following weak service under its control: Records, Tests and Examinations, and Home Membership Activities. As will be recalled, since the clerical force was very much undermanned, particularly in the keeping of records, there was confusion and delay in the handling of records to the disadvantage of the service. With the creation of the position for a records clerk and with assignment of an experienced and trained person to the position, the Bureau was able to remedy part of its deficiencies in the keeping and systematic filing of its records.

The law requires the Bureau of Private Education "To maintain a general standard of efficiency in all private schools and colleges of the Philippines so that they shall furnish adequate instruciton to the public in accordance with the class and grade of instruction given therein" and "to supervise, inspect, and regulate private schools and colleges in order to determine the efficiency of instruction given in the same." Unfortunately, one of the effective educational devices known in supervision to determine the efficiency of instruction in schools — that of testing and examining the schools — was a type of service not provided for in the initial budgets. This was, however, immediately corrected with the creation of three positions for test-correctors in the October-March, 1942 budget through whose services the Bureau was able not only to determine whether the basic principles of education promulgated by the Japanese Military Administration were being imparted, but also carried out as prescribed.

The appointment of a supervisor of home and community membership activities has solved the deficiency in the teaching of this subject for which the private schools was noted. Thanks to the creation of this position, the private schools were able to participate in the educational exhibit in which articles from home and community membership classes were produced.

BUREAU OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

On August 5, 1942, conformably with the desire of His Excellency, the Chairman of the Philippine Executive Commission, the public use of Stadium facilities of the Rizal Memorial Field, including the Municipal Golf Links, was placed under the supervision of the Director of Physical Education. The Philippine Amateur Athletic Federation was consulted as to the possibility of using the latter's funds to help in the upkeep and maintenance of these facilities. Due to the inadequacy of funds of the Federation, a Government aid in the amount of P9,165.00 for the period from October 1, 1942, to March 31, 1943, was given to the Bureau for the maintenance and operation of the Municipal Golf Links and some units of the Rizal Memorial Field, like the Baseball and Track-Football Stadia, Children's Playground, and the Boxing-Wrestling Pavilion.

When the Municipal Golf Course and the Rizal Memorial Field were turned over to the Bureau of Physical Education, the immediate problem that had to be met was the reconditioning of the athletic facilities and equipment. At present the offices in the Rizal Memorial Field have 16,000 armchairs and 3,000 Bulacan chairs available for Stadium use. Slow but steady progress toward a complete restoration of property to usable, normal condition, is being made.

Competitive sports have been organized in the bureaus and offices of the Central Administrative Organs, Government-owned corporations, industrial and commercial firms, and athletic associations.

To take the place of the college and university athletic organizations which have been suspended due to the temporary closing of the higher institutions of learning, an athletic union of various alumni associations formerly composing the University Athletic Association of the Philippines (U.A.A.P.) and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (N.C.A.A.), has been organized. The Manila Baseball League (M.B.L.) has been revived with five teams this year. The series which has just been closed is considered a success.

Steps are being taken to encourage the active participation in sports of people of all ages and in various walks of life. For this reason, not only leagues, meets and tournaments for the gifted and proficient athletes were organized but also gymnastics and recreational activities among the employees of the Government and of various commercial and industrial firms were encouraged. For this purpose the facilities of the Rizal Memorial Field have been opened to accommodate competitive athletics and to afford individuals seeking activities to meet their recreational needs. Over 52,648 participated in sports, games, and instruction groups that the Rizal Memorial Field had to offer in the following activities: Baseball, Basketball, Boxing, Children's Playground, Football, Softball, Swimming, Tennis, and Volleyball.

The following is a brief summary of activities and accomplishments of the Bureau during the period covered in this report:

1. The organization of the employees of the different bureaus and offices under the Deparmtent of Education, Health, and Public Welfare for interbureau athletics, radio calisthenics, and intramural games and other recreational activities.

2. The selection for training as leaders in radio calisthenics of employees of the Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare and of elementary school teachers in the City of Manila.

3. The organization of Radio Taiso units in the different departments of the Government, Government-owned corporations, commercial and industrial establishments, and in schools of the City of Manila in connection with the preparation and participation in the Radio Taiso mass demonstrations on December 8 Anniversary Celebration.

4. The preparation and conduct of the athletic and Radio Taiso program in connection with the celebration of the Greater East Asia War.

5. The organization of the Alumni Associations Athletic Union (A.A.A.U.).

6. The holding of the Junior and National Weight-Lifting Championships.

7. The organization of the Manila Baseball League.

8. The preparation of the gymnastic program for the various departments of the Government.

9. The organization of the Government Interdepartment Athletic Association.

10. The conduct of the interbureau swimming league and the general swimming championships of the Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare in the Rizal Memorial Field.

11. The holding of the Manila Swimming Championships, March 23, 1943.

12. The revision of the playing rules of various sports.

13. The preparation of new athletic training chart.

14. The preparation of a new four-year course for the training of physical directors, athletic coaches, playground directors and teachers in physical education.

15. Studies were made on the following:

(a) Formulation of a uniform, comprehensive graded program of physical education for elementary school, high school and college levels.

(b) The study of Philippine manufactured athletic equipment with regard to their durability, and whether they come up to standard specifications and requirements.

(c) The proposal to manufacture locally such athletic goods as gloves, breast protector, mask etc., in accordance with the standard of specifications.

16. The preparation of a program for the proposed Three-Day Athletic Meet as suggested by the Adviser on Education of the Japanese Military Administration.

17. The preparation of the constitution and by-laws of the "Kabataang Maka-Rizal (Rizal Youth Movement, Rizal Sei Syo Nen Dan).

18. The preparation, in cooperation with the Department of the Interior, of the rules and regulations governing professional boxing and wrestling in the Philippines.

19. The preparation of the glossary of technical terms used in sports, for translation into Tagalog by the Institure of National Language.

BUREAU OF HEALTH

Prior to the setting up of the New Order, the Bureau of Health mobilized its agencies on an emergency footing to cope with the disturbed conditions occasioned by the Greater East Asia War. All health personnel that were stranded in the City of Manila were instructed to stand by to attend to any emergency cases that might be reported. District Health Officers in the provinces were promptly contacted and urged to map out plans for the reorganization of their respective health machineries for the maintenance of health and sanitation. The hospital service was the first unit which was expanded to take care of the war casualties. A total of twelve (12) emergency hospitals were established throughout the Island of Luzon.

Upon the establishment of the New Order, the Bureau of Health was reorganized. The new sections created were the Drug Inspection Service placed under the Division of Administration; Child and Maternal Health under the Division of Sanitation, which was renamed Division of Hygiene and Sanitation; and, a Division of Quarantine was added. On August 1, 1942, the former Quezon Institute was renamed the Philippine Tuberculosis Hospital and placed under the administration of the Bureau of Health. On August 1, 1942, the Section of Publicity was abolished. On December 29, 1942, the Division of Tuberculosis was created, with the Section of Tuberculosis Institute and Senatoria, Section of Tuberculosis Dispensaries and Rehabilitation and the Section of Tuberculosis Prevention and Education under it.

In the main, only cities and provinces in Luzon had been able to provide funds for public health work before July 1, 1942, but by December 31, 1942, practically all cities and provinces had their health machinery well organized.

Preventive public health was carried out by the Bureau of Health along two principal lines, viz.: the application of general measures which aim to prevent the occurrence of diseases and the application of measures specific for every disease.

To improve sanitation and safeguard the health of the general public, the Bureau had first turned its attention to the immediate problems of fly, mosquito and rat control, improvement of toilet facilities, supervision of public markets and public eating places, water supply, food and drug inspection, industrial hygiene and quarantine.

The Bureau, through the City Health Office of Manila, conducted an intensive campaign for a clean city. This was carried out by educating and instructing the general public to keep their garbage and rubbish in pits and holes dug specially for the purpose and the street sweepers to dispose of all street litters in similar manner. The garbage and rubbish problem, which was so acute at the outset of the New Order owing to lack of transportation facilities and personnel in the City of Manila, was controlled after painstaking efforts on the part of every health personnel had been exerted, and the fly incidence was reduced to what might be reasonably expected.

The lack of toilet facilities resulting from the insufficiency of transportation facilities was corrected by replacing toilets found in insanitary condition with temporary sanitary ones. The City of Manila made efforts to revive the P50,000 revolving fund for the construction of the so-called "septic wall" toilets in the individual homes and to acquire more trucks for the resumption of the pail service system. In the provinces systematic campaigns for toilet construction were undertaken after a census of houses with or without toilets was made.

Improvement in the sanitation of public markets and public eating places was noted after the adoption of the rules and regulations governing the establishment and sanitary maintenance of public markets were promulgated. Food handlers as well as the sale and handling of food were duly supervised by allowing no person to engage in the sale and handling of food without first securing a health certificate. In the City of Manila meat inspectors were instructed to be on the lookout for suspected meat. During the year 3,170 kilos of meat found unfit for human human consumption were condemned and the license of the vendors of this food product was revoked.

The provision of portable safe water supply was emphasized in instructions given to the people in the provinces, which conveyed that where the only sources of drinking water are the open or surface wells, brooks, or insufficiently protected springs, boiling the water for at least five minutes was the only method to be followed.

On account of the scarcity of drugs, violations of the Drugs and Pharmacy Laws were openly done for sometime in the City of Manila. This irregularity was soon curtailed by the addition of five assistant pharmacy inspectors who, together with the two former ones, made frequent inspections of drug establishments and apprehended peddlers engaged in this illegal drug trade. A total of 1.506 drug establishments were inspected, 192 samples collected, 120 of which having been confiscated, and six violators arrested during the year.

A total of 3,478 inspections of industrial, commercial and agricultural establishments in connection with precautions against industrial hazards to employees and laborers were made.

As a specific measure against communicable diseases, the Bureau of Health has extended smallpox vaccination and inoculation against cholera, typhoid and dysentery to almost all the municipalities. During the period 306,335 people were vaccinated with 186,g00 bottles of dry and 308,400 bottles of fresh vaccine virus valued at P13,628.00 and 25,437 bottles of 50 cubic centimeters each of mixed cholera, dysentery and typhoid vaccine valued at P339,075.21 had been issued. There occurred in relatively short period of time mild outbreaks of diarrhea-enteritis in the provinces of Bataan, Batangas, Bulacan, Cavite, Ilocos Norte, Isabela, Laguna, Leyte, Marinduque, Mt. Province, Nueva Ecija, Pampanga, Rizal, Tarlac, Tayabas, and Zambales, as well as in the cities of Manila and Cavite. These outbreaks were gradually controlled.

The country was freed from plague and cholera, not a single case of any of these two diseases having been registered during the period, though a case diagnosed as smallpox was reported from the Province of Sulu. No secondary cases followed up to March 30, 1943.

An unprecendented number of malaria cases and deaths was registered both in the City of Manila and in the provinces of Bataan, Batangas, Bulacan, Isabela, Pangasinan, Nueva Vizcaya, Pampanga, Rizal, Tayabas, and Zambales. This epidemic of malaria was mainly due to the evacuation of large numbers of the inhabitants from the centers of population to the foothills and mountains where malaria is indigenous. This situation was met with the enlargement of the hospital facilities of the San Lazaro Hospital. A total of 18,849 malaria cases were admitted in this hospital during the period of which 296 or 1.57% died.

Malaria emergency hospitals were put up and operated in Nasugbu and Tanauan, Batangas; Balanga, Hermosa and Orani, Bataan; Hagonoy and Malolos, Bulacan; Los Baños and Sta. Cruz, Laguna; City of San Pablo; Boac, Marinduque; Baguio, Mt. Province; San Fernando, Pampanga: Dagupan, Pangasinan; Pasig, Rizal; Tarlac, Tarlac; Atimonan, Lopez and Lucena, Tayabas; Iba, Zambales; and the malaria wards of the National Psychopathic Hospital in Mandaluyong. A total of 38,951 cases of malaria were admitted and treated in these institutions. For the treatment of these cases, 1,376,979 quinine tablets valued currently at P281,555.12 were consumed. The Imperial Japanese Army contributed 866,410 tablets of quinine.

In the field, control measures against malaria consisting in canalization, sub-soil drainage, coconut leaves cover, flushing with automatic siphones and the propagation of larvicidal fish had been adopted. Malaria surveys were made in several municipalities of the provinces of Batangas, Bataan, Laguna, and Cavite.

Heretofore the preventive phase of tuberculosis control was the main concern of the Bureau of Health. However, during the middle part of 1942 after considerable discussion over the seriousness of the problem of tuberculosis by civil and military authorities, it was decided to concentrate all anti-tuberculosis work under the Bureau of Health. A program unifying and correlating all measures in regard to the problem has been planned. The newly created Division of Tuberculosis is still in its initial stage of coordinating its different activities compatible with actual conditions. Although handicapped by lack of sufficient funds, the dispensary unit of the Division has performed the arduous task of applying almost all preventive measures against this rampant disease. Certain forms of special treatment were undertaken at the tuberculosis dispensary and its branches in Manila, such as refills after the induction of artificial pneumothorax and phrenico exerosis. In several instances bed patients were at their homes by the dispensary physician. Systematic examination has been made especially among contacts of patients with positive sputum in order to detect early all unsuspected cases of tuberculosis.

In Manila during the first quarter of 1943, a total of 8,279 home visits were made by the visiting physicians and nurses. The number of tuberculous cases in the home (all bed-ridden patients) reached a total of 579). A total of 4,649 cases were treated in the dispensaries among whom 6,840 fluoroscopic examinations were made and 14,830 consultations given.

Mass surveys to detect cases as well as to determine the incidence of tuberculosis among the people in different social levels were conducted. In relation to these surveys there were 53,632 persons examined fluoroscopically, 8,317 of whom were found with positive lung findings. Survey parties, aside from their work of determining the incidence of tuberculosis among the masses, conducted medical clinics where advice and treatment were given to tuberculous cases, particularly those suitable for sanatorium treatment but which cannot be accommodated in the only sanatorium available.

Only three leprosaria continued to function uninterruptedly from January 23, 1942 to the end of March, 1943 — the Leper Department of the San Lazaro Hospital, the Central Luzon Leprosarium, and the Bicol Treatment Station. The activities of the other seven leprosaria and treatment stations had ceased due to lack of funds. Beginning July 1, 1942 funds for the operation of the Culion Leper Colony at a very much reduced personnel were provided for. Thereafter the Western Visayas Treatment Station (September 1, 1942), the Eastern Visayas Treatment Station, the Mindanao Central Treatment Station, the Lanao Sub-treatment Station and the Cotabato Sub-treatment Station (October 1, 1942) were operating as funds became available. The meagre reports received from six leprosaria and treatment stations showed that 121 new cases of leprosy had been segregated, the greater portion of which (104) at the San Lazaro Hospital in Manila. At the end of the period under review 4,338 lepers were confined in the different leprosaria and treatment stations.

The control of venereal diseases was effected through the work of the venereal clinics. As the control of venereal diseases is difficult, principally because of the nature of the disease and the means through which they are contacted, the Bureau of Health has taken steps towards the control of the spread of the disease through the control of prostitution about which an ordinance for the City of Manila has been proposed. During the period under review a total of 4,168 women of various ages employed in entertainment houses were examined periodically in the different diagnostic clinics. The male venereal clinic at the San Lazaro Hospital treated a total of 829 patients in 1942 and 239 from January to March, 1943, while the female venereal clinic treated 786 patients in 1942 and 322 from January to March, 1943. Apart from these clinics a female ward for venereal cases is being maintained in the San Lazaro Hospital; this ward admitted 139 cases in 1942 and 139 were registered from January to March, 1943. The venereal laboratory at the San Lazaro Hospital examined a total of 9,091 smears, 1,406 blood specimens for Kahn test, 66 dark-field examinations and 5 Wassermann reactions in 1942, and 6,602 smears, 954 Kahn and 23 dark-field examinations from January to March, 1943.

When the Philippine Executive Commission was established, only 26 of the 47 hospitals under the Bureau had been regularly heard from with a total bed capacity of 4,886. However, due to the exigencies of public service 12 emergency hospitals and 14 emergency wards in 144 regular hospitals were established, thereby increasing the bed capacity by 3,798 or a grand total of 8,684 beds. During the period a total of 71,405 patients were admitted, of whom 52,277 had recovered, 8,753 improved, 1,934 unimproved, 337 transfered, 2,153 absconded, and 5,435 died. A total of 1,106 major surgical operations and 11,642 minor surgical operations were performed in these different government hospitals.

The Bureau of Health was entrusted with the care of released sick war prisoners during the period. A total of 9,460 sick war prisoners had been hospitalized in the different institutions under the Bureau of Health, 2,855 of whom were released under the guaranty of the Bureau.

The total deaths recorded among these ex-servicemen were 579; of these, 330 belonged to the group under the responsibility of the Bureau of Health.

In general, health and sanitary conditions in the Philippines are satisfactory, though for a long time particularly soon after January 23, 1942, conditions may be considered as alarming on account of the danger of epidemics.

BUREAU OF PUBLIC WELFARE

The Bureau of Public Welfare as organized under the Central Administrative Organization on January 23, 1942, is composed of the old Bureau of Public Welfare under the former Department of Health and Public Welfare; the Department of Labor; and the National Social Security Administration. The functions of the old Bureau of Public Welfare may be classified into: (1) those pertaining directly or indirectly to child welfare or the care and education of dependent, neglected, delinquent and mentally and physically handicapped children; and (2) those concerned, directly or otherwise, with general welfare, that is, the relief and rehabilitation of the destitute, the sick and unemployed, the aged and infirm, women in unfortunate circumstances and other under-privileged members of the community. Besides retaining the above mentioned functions, the new Bureau of Public Welfare as reconstituted, was assigned a considerably augmented, increased and expanded sphere of activitty, having taken over the functions of the Department of Labor relating to claims for compensation and/or wages; support of indigent and abandoned wives and children; and the guardianship of minor orphans and abandoned children; as well as the major functions of the defunct National Social Security Administration relating to relief.

During the period under review the funds of the Bureau came from (1) "Appropriations" and (2) "Other income." From appropriations it had P1,499,040.82 and from "other income" P75,596.42, giving a total fund of P1,574,637.24. The disbursements during the same period were as follows: (1) for salaries and wages, P457,507.63; (2) for sundry expenses, P351,842.44; and (3) for special purposes, P683,069.69 giving a total of P1,492,419.76; thus realizing for the Bureau at the end of the fiscal period, that is March 31, 1943, a savings of P82,217.48. Deducting P75,596.42 under the classification of "other income" from the savings of P82,217.48, the Bureau realized a net savings of P6,621.06.

Special mention may be made of the fact that under classification of "special purposes" is included the amount of ₱50,000.00 donated by His Excellency, the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces in the Philippines for relief purposes.

Under Executive Order No. 24 which was the Appropriation Act for the period from January 23, 1942, to March 31, 1942, the plantilla of the Bureau was composed of 645 employees, 632 of which were regular and permanent employees and 13 temporary and emergency; under Executive Order No. 45, the Appropriation Act for the period from April 1, 1942 to June 30, 1942, 24 positions were abolished thus leaving a remainder of only 621 positions in the plantilla during the said budget period which positions were distributed as follows: 608 regular and permanent and 13 temporary and emergency employees; under Executive Order No. 65 covering the period from July 1, to October 31, 1942, out of 621 positions only 501 were left which represented 120 positions abolished; and under Executive Order No. 107 covering the budget period from November 1, 1942 to March 31, 1943, the total number of personnel in this Bureau was increased by 31 thus giving a total strength of 532 positions distributed as follows: 498 regular and permanent, 6 temporary and emergency, and 28 positions created under the sweepstakes fund. To summarize, therefore, it should be stated that at the time the Bureau of Public Welfare was reconstituted its total personnel strength was 645 and by the end of the fiscal period under review, that is March 31, 1943, there were left only 532 positions, or a decrease of 113 positions.

As reconstituted, the Bureau is composed of three (3) divisions, namely: the Division of Administration, the Division of Child Welfare, and the Division of General Welfare. The Division of Administration has three sections under it, to wit: (1) General Service Section, (2) The Cash and Property Section, and (3) Records Section; the Division of Child Welfare has under its supervision three sections, namely: (1) Section of Supervision of Private Child-caring Institutions, (2) Probation and Placement Section, and (3) Welfareville Institutions; the Division of General Welfare originally started with three sections, namely: (1) Public Assistance Section, (2) The Employment Section, and (3) the Special Service Section. On May 1, 1942, however, the Special Service Section was abolished and on February 16, 1943 the Employment Section was transferred to the Bureau of Employment by virtue of the provisions of Executive Order No. 118 creating the said Bureau of Employment. It will be seen, therefore, that by the end of the fiscal period under review the General Welfare Division was left with only one section, that is, the Public Assistance Section.

In addition to the foregoing activities, the Bureau, early in September of last year, was entrusted with the care and rehabilitation of released prisoners of war. This caused the Bureau to convert the Memorial Hospital into a hospital for the Crippled and Infirm, and had to make use of several apartments in the Government Tenement Houses as convalescent homes for them. Anticipating, however, that the Memorial Hospital for the Crippled and Infirm including its Vitas Branch would not be sufficient to accommodate the large number of prisoners of war who would be released to our care, from time to time, the idea of opening convalescent homes was conceived. Various district Welfare Committees composed of civic-spirited citizens of the community were organized by the Bureau in the welfare districts under welfare stations for the purpose of establishing convolescent homes in their respective districts. As organized, these convalescent homes provide temporary housing facilities for stranded released prisoners of war where they could recover physically and at the same time learn some vocation to prepare them for a productive and useful life. Under the close supervision of the Bureau, convalescent homes have not only provided a real home for the stranded ex-soldiers but also restored them to health and at the same time taught them some vocation. Since their organization in September of last year the convalescent homes have housed 1,855 released prisoners of war of which 1,272 have already been assisted in returning to their homes and rejoining their families. Besides these, 824 ex-soldiers were also placed, through this Bureau, to regular or permanent jobs, or positions. To further their vocational instruction and physical recuperation, as many as could possibly be transferred and accommodated were sent, from time to time, to the Los Baños Training Camp.

As regard to welfare work, the Bureau divided relief into three classes, namely: (1) outright or emergency relief, (2) work relief, and (3) disaster relief.

The relief work of the Bureau is performed directly by two (2) units under the Public Assistance Section of the General Welfare Division, namely: the Metropolitan Unit which takes charge of the relief work in the City of Manila, and the Provincial Unit which takes charge of the relief work in the provinces.

1. *Metropolitan Unit* — During the period under review the Metropolitan Unit registered 77,672 applicants out of which 11,992 families composed of 58,189 persons were granted outright relief. It also enabled 4,874 persons to return to their homes by furnishing them transportation assistance. Special relief was extended to 1,161 persons housed in private institutions which receive aid from the Bureau. A total of 468,169 persons were aided thru the work relief system. Thru the efforts of this unit 34,473 families, with 124,554 dependents were rehabilitated and accordingly dropped from the relief roll. It also rendered social service assistance to 169,921 persons. The material relief extended have an aggregate total of 658,917.74 kilos of rice, 48,176.17 chupas of dilis, 952,254 pieces of kapak, 5 big cans and 1,395 small cans of milk, 21,477.5 pieces of panocha, 961 pieces of garments, and other garden products, and cash amounting to ₱3,822.82.

2. *Provincial Unit* — During the same period, the Provincial Unit covered 150 municipalities in 21 provinces. Survey and relief parties numbering a total of 51 field officers have been dispatched to these provinces and, where it was found necessary, emergency relief stations or relief units were organized to undertake the administration of relief. The records of the Provincial Unit show that 38,030 families consisting of 219,340 persons were given emergency assistance in the amount of ₱35,896.99, which contributed to the rehabilitation not only of the clients concerned but also of the community as a whole. The agents of the Provincial Unit gave particular attention to following up the cases of released prisoners of war in the provinces, including war widows and orphans, so that adequate and timely aid may be extended to them. The records show that 15,427 released prisoners of war were contacted and 736 war widows and orphans registered and assisted. To a great extent, the agents of the Provincial Unit, working side by side with local officials, contributed to the return to normalcy of the communities to where they were assigned. The Provincial Unit also undertook the supervision of the Home for the Aged and Infirm in Naga where 1,174 out-cases were given assistance and 4,336 others sheltered and fed. Side by side with the relief projects have been afforded to jobless and indigent persons and food production accelerated.

Work relief projects is a new system of relief instituted under the present regime. In the giving of relief the Bureau has set as its guiding principle the policy of "helping people help themselves". And to discourage the giving of emergency and outright relief to able-bodied members of indigent families, a plan was sought out by which instead of giving relief in money or rations, as the case may be, they are made to do some kind of work for which they are paid. It is believed that this system discouraged the giving out of "doles", and moreover, enabled the government to derive some income out of the efforts of these work relief workers. This led to the organization of the Work Relief Agency, for the purpose of centralizing, coordinating and synchronizing the various vocational and relief projects undertaken by these work-relief workers. According to the report of the Secretary-Treasurer of said Relief Agency, it has since its organization, realized the amount of P13,900.00 from miscellaneous products produced by the work relief workers.

The Work Relief Unit placed under cultivation 990,351 square meters of idle lands and from the products raised from such projects it is estimated that P11,409.93 worth of garden products were harvested and made available for relief.

The Vocational Project which was intended to provide vocational education to employable clients has, since its organization on November 6, 1942 up to March 31, 1943, produced P7,409.85 worth of articles. Appreciating the value of vocational instruction, this project has been extended to welfare stations and convalescent homes.

It may not be amiss to include here a general statement regarding the Los Baños Recuperative Training Camp. This camp was established on September 4, 1942 when 180 released prisoners of war under former Brigadier General Fidel V. Segundo, were assigned to Los Baños and placed under the supervision of a Central Committee, created by the Chairman of the Philippine Executive Commission, of which the Director of Public Welfare was designated Executive Officer and Member. While the funds of this camp come from the special appropriations under the Office of the Chairman, by virtue, however, of the designation of the Director as the Executive Officer and Member of the Central Committee, the administrative function of the camp is being handled by the Bureau of Public Welfare. The members of the Central Committee charged with the duty of administering the Los Baños Recuperative Training Camp are composed of Bienvenido M. Gonzalez, President of the University of the Philippines; Jose Sanvictores, Assistant Commissioner of Agriculture and Commerce; and the Director of Public Welfare, as members, the latter having been designated, in addition thereto, as Executive Officer. As of March 31, 1943 there were 413 released prisoners of war in the Los Baños Recuperative Training Camp.

The Welfareville Institutions are charged with the following functions: (1) The care, training and education of orphaned, dependent, and destitute children; (2) the care and treatment of mentally defective children; (3) the care, training, and rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents; and (4) the care of infants and young dependent children separated from their leprous parents.

On January 23, 1942 there were 1,856 wards actually inside the Welfareville Institutions. From January 23, 1942 to December 31, 1942, there were 769 admissions and 710 discharges, while from January 1 to March 31, 1943, there were 335 admissions and 262 discharges. As of March 31, 1943 there were 1,648 wards actually inside the institution.

UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES

The University of the Philippines as reconstituted under Executive Order No. 1 promulgated on January 30, 1942, is one of the institutions under this Department. Its purpose and function which are identical with those embodied in its original charter, are to provide for advanced instruction in literature, philosophy, the sciences and arts and to give technical and professional training. With the advice and recommendation of the Dean or Director concerned, the President of the University who is appointed by ythe Chairman of the Executive Commission, performs the duties and functions of the Board of Regents and the University Council which were abolished under the present regime.

The suspension of the operation of some units of the University put to a standstill a number of important activities and the units which continued functioning uninterruptedly and those which were authorized to reopen subsequently had to operate, as they do now, on a reduced scale due to the limited appropriations granted the Institution. At the close of the period covered by this report, only seven out of the fifteen colleges and schools in operation at the outbreak of the war in December, 1941, were functioning.

Reports show that the buildings at the Main Campus of the University, the Veterinary Campus at Pandacan, some of the Diliman buildings, and those in the College of Art sand Sciences in Baguio are occupied by the Imperial Japanese Forces. Those at Alabang and at Los Baños are not, however, occupied by the Army. No official reports have been received from the Marine Biological Station, the Cebu Junior College and the Basilan Land Grant.

As a result of the repeated representations made by this Department, permission was granted the University to put in order the records of the Institution, to transfer the library books, collections, chemicals, and all the other materials and equipment to places where they are needed for instructional purposes or where they should be stored for safe-keeping.

During the period covered by this report, a total of P737,760.26 was appropriated for all the activities of the University, including the expenses for the Alabang Laboratories and the Tikitiki Laboratories which were formerly financed by their respective incomes thru the operation of separate revolving funds. From other incomes, the University realized a total of P176,304.19. It may be stated in this connection that the income does not include the amount of P104,423.25 which is the cost of the vaccines and the era supplied the Bureau of Health by the Institute of Hygiene after the establishment of the Executive Commission. There are also three other bills for vaccines and sera delivered during the period under report amounting to a total of P19,672.50 which the Bureau of Health expects to pay.

The total expenditures for the period amounted to P714,085.03. Of this total, the amount of P548,752.86 was spent for salaries and wages and P113,109.29 for sundries. The balance represents disbursements for special purposes.

As a result of the present emergency, the reduction in the number of the personnel of the University became inevitable. The records show 777 positions allotted to the University as of March, 1943 as compared with 1805 positions as of December, 1941. The position of Vice President of the University was abolished and in its stead was placed the position of Administrative Officer. The positions of deans, directors, professors, instructors, and other members of the teaching force were placed in the exempt class or in the unclassified civil service. Three Japanese instructors in Nippongo were assigned by the Japanese Military Administration to teach this subject and to help the Filipino instructors in Nippongo.

During the academic year 1942-1943, the enrollment of the University was 2070 for the collegiate units and 693 for the non-collegiate units, or a total of 2763 students.

The scholarships awarded by this Institution are shown in the table below by units and by semesters.

SCHOLARSHIPS

Units	1st Semester			2nd Semester		
	Full	*Partial*	*Class*	*Full*	*Partial*	*Class*
College of Agriculture	7	3	2	8	10	2
School of Dentistry	1	—	—	—	4	1
College of Engineering	—	—	—	7	13	2
School of Forestry	—	—	—	—	1	—
Junior College	32	12	—	31	22	—
College of Medicine	9	17	4	4	14	4
College of Pharmacy	—	—	—	3	2	—
College of Vet. Science	—	2	1	—	2	1
Total	49	34	7	53	68	10

At the end of 1941-1942, 156 degrees were conferred and 81 certificates were awarded. From the end of the academic year 1941-1942 up to the close of the period under report, 59 degrees were conferred. The students who would have completed their courses at the end of the academic year 1942-1943 were not included in this report as their graduation falls on April 6, 1943.

In view of the abolition of the position of the Dean for Women, counsellors of women students were designated in the different schools and colleges to aid and guide the female students in problems involving intellectual, emotional, and social adjustments.

In accordance with the instructions laid down by the Military Administration, a course in Japanese language and culture was given in the University. Knowledge of Nippongo was made a requirement for graduation. As stated elsewhere, three Japanese teachers were detailed to the University to handle this course.

Gymnastic and athletic activities were conducted among the students as part of their curricular and extra-curricular requirements. Intramural games were held among the different units to supplement the *radio taiso* which is a regular feature of the physical education of the students.

The peculiar conditions inherent in a period of emergency were reflected in the research output of the University. A number of factors more or less directly traceable to the prevailing abnormal conditions affected the research activities of the period, the continuance of the experiments already in progress, and the initiation of new projects. There were in addition the problems arising from dwindling finances, the increasing cost of materials, the depletion of irreplaceable stock, the thinning out of the faculty ranks occasioned by forced separations from the service and the discontinuance of publications. What is surprising is not that the output of research had gone down by comparison with that of the preceding years, but that it was at all possible to turn out a fair number of reports.

However, the changed conditions brought about new problems, and as in the College of Medicine, the follow-up of certain diseases and clinical cases appearing to have been caused by war conditions and not heretofore observed were noted. The scarcity of certain materials challeneged the resourcefulness of the faculty and hastened the adoption of new and ingenious techniques. A wealth of materials and situations presented themselves for study and investigation, the result of which may in the future be of interest or value to the scientific world. Some of the research projects undertaken during the period are attached hereto as Appendix A.

NATIONAL LIBRARY

As reconstituted and reorganized under the present laws, the National Library is charged with the powers, duties, and functions defined by Section 43, Article VI, of Executive Order No. 4, series of 1942, as amended by Executive Order No. 59, same series. Its Section on the enforcement of the Marriage Law and the registration of priests and ministers of the Gospel, was transferred to the Bureau of Religious Affairs on January 23, 1942. Its branch libraries in the cities and provinces have been closed and the activities of its traveling libraries have likewise been suspended, as a result of the abolition of positions in the May-June 1942 Budget. Its Research and Bibliography Division, too, was abolished as a Division and converted into a Section of the Filipiniana Division following the reduction of its personnel from 6 to 2 in the July-September 1942 Budget.

Its various collections of books and works of art and historical objects have suffered considerable damage and even losses not only as a result of their frequent transfers from one building to another since December 1941 but also due to the War.

Because of its reduced appropriations and personnel, the abolition of the branches and travelling libraries and the effects of the War in general, the statistical figures covering its varied functions and activities during the period show decreases as compared with the figures for 1941. The number of readers recorded in the reading rooms was 486,120 as against 1,543,903 in 1941; the number of books and other reference materials that could be counted as served in its reading rooms was 618,431 as compared with 2,751,792 in 1941; while the number of books circulated or lent for home use was 288,044 as against 502,299 in 1941.

The works of the Filipiniana Division have also suffered considerable interruptions because of the transfer of its collections from the Legislative Building to Diliman and from there back to the Legislative Building within a period of six months. Nevertheless, since the reopening to the public of its reference and reading room service at the latter part of 1942, it served many readers and researchers by helping them get their materials or guide them to their use. The manuscript for the Epistolario de Marcelo H. del Pilar, Volume I have been completed and is now ready for the press. Its activity on the compilation of Philippine folklore and local history has suffered a big set back due to the abolition of practically all the positions for folklore researchers. It could, however, do some work on the translation into English of its collection of Lanao folklore and local history materials, and to continue the Dictionary of Dates. Among the division's accomplishments on research and bibliography are: Japanese participation in the Philippine Revolution; short bibliography on the anthropology, history and geography of the Philippines; matters connected with the life and works of Rizal; Filipino superstitions; religion of the Filipinos; culture of the Filipinos as revealed in their commercial and business transactions. The Rizal Exhibit put up by this Division has proved to be a success and it attracted many people.

The Division of Archives is still temporarily and inadequately housed in the Bilibid Compound. Despite its small force, it accomplished a good amount of work in the classification and indexing of the old documents that form its valuable collections.

The Gallery of Art and History Division is now housed temporarily in the Session Hall of the defunct House of Representatives. The collections can not be very well presented in those Halls because these are not really adequate for the purpose. Nevertheless, the exhibits have been arranged as best as possible with the help and advise of Director Amorsolo of the former School of Fine Arts, University of the Philippines.

The National Library was visited by many persons the most prominent of whom included His Excellency, the Commanding General of the Japanese Imperial Forces and His Excellency, the Chairman of the Philippine Executive Commission.

The present urgent needs of this Bureau are adequate permanent quarters for its valuable collections; sufficient funds to carry out the purposes of Sections 1689 (b), 1689 (f) and 1694, of Act 2711 as well as appropriations for the repair and rebinding of its demaged books and periodicals; re-creation of at least some positions abolished in the May-June 1942 Budget to rehabilitate the service and to reopen all the branch libraries and travelling libraries in the cities and provinces.

INSTITUTE OF NATIONAL LANGUAGE

Soon after its organization under the Philippine Executive Commission, the Institute of National Language resumed work, utilizing such equipment, supplies, and materials as it was allowed by the Japanese Military to recover from its former offices at the University of the Philippines Alumni Hall and as were loaned to it by the Philippine Normal School. Much of its unfinished work, such as the Dictionary of the National Language, the index to its publications, the individual studies on the affixes in the different Philippine languages, had to be started all over again because of its inability to transfer the greater volume of its records to its new office.

When the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Japanese Forces in the Philippines in a military ordinance issued in July, 1942, declared Tagalog an official language besides Japanese, the Institute found it advisable, for the benefit of the Administration and of the public, to prepare lists containing Tagalog equivalents of English terminologies commonly used in official correspondence. Several such lists have already been prepared and approved by the Department. A few others are awaiting approval. These lists, seventeen in all, contain about 8,500 terms and phrases. Aside from these, other lists are being prepared on the various branches of art, and the social and natural sciences, such as music, the dance, botany, zoology, medicine, law, sociology, physical education, and history.

In September, 1942, at the request of the Department, the Director of the Institute submitted a report on the national language situation. The report contained data and information on the provinces where Tagalog is spoken, the population using Tagalog, the number of books and pamphlets printed in the language, the number and circulation of the newspapers and periodicals published wholly or partly in Tagalog, the number of schools, colleges, and universities offering courses in the language, and the efforts taken by the Institute in collecting information on Tagalog literature. Some of the facts brought out in the report are: that Tagalog literature is much more voluminous than any other vernacular literature, that Tagalog is spoken by more than one-fourth of the total population of the Philippines, and that Tagalog newspapers and periodicals have the biggest combined circulation of all vernacular newspapers and periodicals.

Through representations made with the proper authorities, the Institute has secured the necessary appropriations to enable it to print some works which were awaiting publication at the outbreak of the present war in December, 1941. These publications will be printed when the necessary permit is secured from the Japanese Military Administration.

Working with much-curtailed appropriations, a greatly reduced personnel, and limited and poor office facilities, the Institute nevertheless has tried its best to discharge its duties and responsibilities. It has cooperated faithfully with the Administration in its program to evolve, develop and propagate a national language that can truly be called Filipino.

PHILIPPINE GENERAL HOSPITAL

Activities and Progress — There was practically no disruption in the activities of the Philippine General Hospital during the period from January 23, 1942 to March 31, 1943. Of course, for a few months following the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, the abnormal condition prevailing all over the country was reflected, in one way or another, in the hospital services. Fewer patients went to the free dispensary for treatment, many operations had to be suspended, and research work was temporarily abandoned. However, as conditions became more nearby normal, the hospital likewise began to assume its usual stride, in spite of the innumerable obstacles and hardships brought about by the war.

Admissions to the free dispensary has now reached pre-war figures. All operation cases are now attended to with dispatch. In the field of research, it may have a redirection stimulated as it were by the new problems brought about by the war. Several subjects of research have been conducted by the different clinical departments of the hospital during the period covered by this report as contributions to the progress of medicine in the Philippines.

With the evacuation of Bataan last year and the release of many war prisoners from Tarlac, a large number of malaria cases were brought in to Manila. The donations for quinine tablets made by Chairman Vargas and Dr. Victor Buencamino of the Naric enabled the hospital to start a special malaria service on July 15, 1942. Since the opening of this new service, 1,366 patients have been treated, making a total number of 8,603 visits made in the hospital up to March 31, 1943.

During the month of May, 1942, three resident physicians of the hospital were sent for medical survey work among the refugees in Bataan and Bulacan, and to help organize a Civilian Hospital in Hagonoy.

The Army and Navy also availed themselves, from time to time, of the facilities for the hospital, by the use of its equipment, apparatus, instruments, supplies, and the service of its personnel. Laboratory and X-ray examinations were performed upon the request of the military authorities. Pathological specimens were brought to the hospital for examination by the Army Hospital officials. Some instruments and pieces of furniture have been borrowed by the different branches of the Army. Some medicines were also given to the Navy Hospital in August and October, 1942.

An innovation in the hospital service is the extension of the 33-1/2% discount given to government employees and to all people belonging to the so-called middle class. Among the hospital employees themselves, the new activities undertaken are the introduction of the Radio Taiso, the formation of the P.G.H. Athletic Association, and the holding of recreational program for all members of the hospital staff. Like other branches of the government, the Philippine General Hospital was greatly affected by the war in many ways. The drastic reduction in number and in the salary of its personnel has increased the duties and responsibilities of each individual employees while it has reduced his income and consequently his standard of living. In fact, certain services of the hospital have to be discontinued due to the general retrenchment policy.

One of the most acute problems facing the hospital is the diminishing supply of materials and equipment and the mounting prices of everything that the hospital needs. Supplies left in stock at the outbreak of the hostilities are already exhausted and replenishment thereof is hard to make not only because of reduced appropriations and the unusual increase in prices but also because some of the needed supplies can no longer be found in the market. Market conditions show that the prices of goods and commodities now have increased four or five times their pre-war prices and in the case of drugs, medicines, and other hospital supplies, their prices have increased as high as ten times their former cost. It is certain that the hospital activities in connection with care and treatment of the sick will sooner or later have to be curtailed.

The present system of buying government supplies by public bidding under the supervision of the Bureau of Purchase and Supply is inexpedient for the purpose of the Philippine General Hospital because it takes a long time before the supplies and materials are obtained. At present, market conditions fluctuate from time to time and this state of affairs calls for action at once prompt and expedient. The buyer who acts promptly gets the goods if he pays immediately and the one who resorts to a slow process gets them at higher prices or never gets them at all. Business transactions today are on the "cash-and-carry" basis. The Philippine General Hospital will suffer no little amount of inconvenience in securing its supplies and materials under the present system of government buying.

At present, the ration of alcohol for each of the hospital's seven cars is only 65 liters every ten days. This quantity of ration has beeen insufficient, thereby affecting adversely the transportation service to a very great extent. The transportation service has also been impaired considerably due to lack of sufficient supply of lubricating oil. The present quantity of lubricating oil given by the Philippine Liquid Fuel Distributing Union is only one quart monthly for each car.

The Institute of X-ray and Radium Therapy and the Department of Physical Therapy of the hospital are having a hard time in maintaining their respective services due to lack of spare parts and accessories which are very essential to the radio-therapy and radio-diagnostic services to hospital patients. The Budget and Auditing Office has allocated the amount of P19,411.50 for the purchase of X-ray supplies and accessories but it seems that these are not obtainable from the current market.

More than half of the radium element of the hospital was transferred to the Military Administration last December while the balance on hand will also be taken six months thereafter. The Military Administration has partly paid for this radium in cash, and the X-ray apparatus now in Hong Kong will be given to the hospital to pay for the difference.

Electrical repairs and reinstallations are also needed in the hospital but work on these projects could not yet be undertaken in view of the fact that the supplies and materials needed are not available. For lack of appropriation, no new equipment has been purchased and the old ones are still being used.

There is also the difficulty relative to food. Due to the increasing prices of foodstuffs and to scarcity in certain cases, patients could not be given the kind and the amount of food they need. The members of the hospital personnel too, who are entitled to subsistence, are suffering from insufficiency of ration. Oftentimes, they have to buy additional food outside from their personal funds.

The Director of the Hospital and his assistants make frequent inspections of the various departments and see to it that stringent economy measures are observed by all members of the hospital personnel. Some of these pertain to the economical use of lights, gas, medicines, dressings, etc.

In spite of the limited funds alloted to the Philippine General Hospital, the hospital authorities are not a bit discouraged in carrying out their mission. According to the Director, the hospital "is determined to perform its functions to the highest degree of efficiency possible under the present circumstances."

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the preceding pages the activities and accomplishments of the different bureaus and offices under the Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare were presented. This Department is fully aware of the fact that a great deal remains to be done to help bring about peace and order and to speed up reconstruction and rejuvenation through education, improvement of health, and amelioration of socio-economic conditions. With the national objectives in mind, the following recommendations are presented for consideration:

BUREAU OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

1. Adequate appropriations should be provided for the repair of buildings that have been destroyed during the war. Hardly a division exists but has requested money for building repairs.

2. Enough appropriations should be made for the purchase of equipment and supplies that have been lost or destroyed, including home economics equipment, garden and shop tools, textbooks, etc.

3. Additional personnel should be provided in the General Office to enable it to cope with the expanding activities of the school system.

4. At least the position of division supervisor should be recreated if instruction is to be supervised with a fair degree of efficiency. With the abolition of the positions of division supervisors and district supervisors, the division superintendent alone has been greatly handicapped to cope with the duties pertaining to school supervision.

5. Additional clerks should be provided for division offices. There is only one clerk at present who serves as chief clerk, correspondence clerk, property clerk, and sometimes even as messenger. In view of the increasing volume of work in the offices of division superintendents due to the opening of more schools, the services of one clerk are entirely inadequate.

6. The period of training for Filipino teachers of Nippongo should be lengthened. The last two groups of graduates of the Normal Institute had only three and one-half months of training. This period is considered very brief and insufficient. Increasing the period of training will make possible a more effective instruction of Nippongo in the public schools.

7. As the financial condition of the country improves, the maximum of 120 pupils to one teacher should be reduced. The present load of the teacher which permits a maximum of 60 pupils in the morning and another 60 in the afternoon is unquestionably too heavy to secure efficient instruction.

8. More traveling allowance should be given the division superintendents. They need more allowance not only to enable them to visit or open more schools, but also to permit them to take the safest means of transportation. These superintendents, not to mention the teachers under them, have to attend to the food-production campaign, to help organizing neighborhood associations, and to assist in restoring peace and order in various communities. In the performance of their manifold duties, they have suffered much personal discomfort, if not privations.

9. More barrio schools, secondary schools, and vocational schools should be reopened.

BUREAU OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

10. In reopening private conservatories of music, Philippine music, in addition to Japanese music, should be taught. The Bureau of Private

Education has now in rough draft form materials on Philippine music for use by the various music departments of the conservatories of music. So that they could be made available for use by private conservatories of music, it is recommended that the Government undertake the printing of the materials which should be sold at cost.

11. The following positions in the Bureau of Private Education should be created: one librarian to carry out the requirements of Order No. 11, dated April 17, 1942 of the Director General of the Japanese Military Administration regarding censorship of books in private school libraries; one engineer to supervise the technical schools; and two supervisors of secondary schools, in addition to the two already made available, for the supervision of secondary instruction.

12. There should be a law or some kind of regulation which would require that at least 20% of the income derived from fees of secondary students be set aside by private secondary schools for the improvement of existing classroom facilities, preference to be given to laboratory equipment and supplies; and that not less than 50% of the income from such fees of secondary students should be spent for teachers' salaries, the school violating this requirement to be penalized.

13. In employing instructors in private schools administered by foreign nationals, a requirement should be prescribed to the effect that not less than 25% of the members of the faculty thus employed should be Filipinos and that subjects dealing with Philippine Culture, patriotism or nationalism, be handled by Filipino instructors.

14. The opening of new schools on the collegiate level should be restricted as to area and courses; that is, not more than two such schools should be permitted to operate to within the same prescribed area and that courses offered in one school in the locality should not duplicate those offered in another school in the same locality. The reasons behind these restrictions are: (a) to avoid undue competition which might adversely affect the standards of instruction, and (b) to prevent the turning out of more graduates in one branch of learning than the community or the nation can absorb.

15. In order to accelerate the diffusion and dissemination of the Japanese language, more Japanese instructors should be made available and that the centers now available for the training of Filipino teachers in Nippongo be increased by providing one in Central Luzon, one in the Bicol region, one in the Ilocos provinces, four in the Visayas, and two in Mindanao.

16. Tagalog should be implemented in schools in non-Tagalog speaking localities as fast as the Institute of National Language and the Department can turn out instructional materials for the teaching of Tagalog; that a policy prescribing for a more careful and rigid selection of Tagalog teachers be promulgated; and that training centers or institutes for the training of Tagalog teachers be opened as early as possible in strategic areas in the Philippines on a plan similar to that recommended for the training of Japanese teachers.

BUREAU OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

17. The Bureau of Physical Education should be authorized to prepare and train physical education instructors, athletic coaches and playground directors, who could be sent out to all parts of the Islands to teach, direct, and supervise the program of activities.

18. In order to maintain a uniform standard of physical education and recreational activities throughout the country, the Bureau should be authorized to supervise, inspect, and regulate physical education in schools and colleges and in all provincial and city playground and recreation centers.

BUREAU OF HEALTH

19. In order to intensify all phases of public health work, at least the key positions provided in Commonwealth Act No. 654 which were abolished during the present government should be recreated.

20. To intensify malaria control work througuh the establishment and operation of malaria control units and malaria hospitals throughout the Archipelago, an appropriation of one million pesos for a period of one year should be made available.

21. An annual appropriation of one million pesos be made to provide: sufficient sanatoria beds for cases of tuberculosis which are still amenable to treatment; additional hospital beds for cases to undergo training in useful trades and labors adequate for their physical condition; and, extensive campaign of prevention and education among the masses.

22. Institutions which were closed and which were dedicated exclusively to puericulture and maternal hygiene work should be re-established. This phase of public health activity has been effectuated in the past, resulting ultimately in considerable reduction of infant mortality

to 135 per thousand during 1940, through the establishment of puericulture centers in the different cities and municipalities under the auspices of women's clubs, aided by grants from the Central Government. For this purpose, an appropriation of P200,000 for a period of one year is respectfully recommended.

23. All leper institutions previously operating for the segregation, care and treatment of all bacteriologically positive lepers should be re-established. In view of the considerable damages suffered by buildings in leper institutions during the present emergency, five hundred thousand pesos for construction of buildings and acquisitions of equipments P500,000.00) is respectfully requested, aside from the continuation of operating expenses of all leper institutions as provided in the appropriation orders, and re-creation of all positions abolished.

24. The following appropriations should be made available:

(1) P300,000.00 per year should be provided for the operation and maintenance of all provincial hospitals as provinces and cities which heretofore have been maintaining them from their own collections are not in a position to do so at present;

(2) P200,000.00 for the purchase of medicines and medical supplies for distribution to the different dispensaries and clinics throughout the Archipelago to be subsequently distributed to the people under the strict supervision of medical officers of the Bureau.

BUREAU OF PUBLIC WELFARE

25. That additional personnel for the Welfareville Institutions, the Division of General Welfare and the Division of Child Welfare be provided. Likewise the welfare stations need more permanent social workers if they are to function as effectively as they should. The territory covered by each welfare station is so extensive that one or two regular social workers cannot possibly cope with all the work that require immediate attention. Needless to state, the services of emergency social workers who are on work relief cannot be as satisfactory and as efficient as those performed by the regular employees.

26. That increased appropriations should be made for the Bureau's activities. No matter how fundamentally sound the ideas are and how efficient and devoted the men behind an activity designed may be to ameliorate, not to say liquidate, various social ills, if the facilities needed to prosecute that activity to its fullest extent are not adequate, no substantial progress can be attained.

27. That the Bureau be provided with additional resources to carry on its plan for the control and amelioration of the social problems which continuously beset us especially during these abnormal times and to strengthen and broaden the rehabilitation program.

UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES

28. That more financial support be given the University in order that it may be enabled to properly discharge its allotted functions in the scheme of activities of an enlightened community.

29. That funds be made available for agricultural extension service through the College of Agriculture and the College of Veterinary Science.

NATIONAL LIBRARY

30. Adequate permanent quarters should be provided for the valuable collections.

31. Sufficient funds should be made available to carry out the purposes of Sections 1689(b), 1689(f) and 1694, of Act 2711, as well as appropriations for the repair and rebinding of its damaged books and periodicals.

32. Abolished positions should be recreated to rehabilitate the service and to reopen all the branch libraries and travelling libraries in the cities and provinces.

INSTITUTE OF NATIONAL LANGUAGE

33. The Institute of National Language should be reorganized along the plan outlined in Appendix B.

34. The Institute should be given additional floor space. The question of floor space for the personnel of the Institute has been our principal problem for the last several months. The crowded atmosphere and inadequate ventilation of the room presently occupied by the Institute are not conducive to the health of the employees.

35. That funds be made available for printing at least some of the studies which will hasten the spread of the National Language.

PHILIPPINE GENERAL HOSPITAL

36. The Domiciliary Medicine should be revived. This service has proved of incalculable benefit to the poor class of the City of Manila. At the same time, it serves as a very important training for both the interns and residents as the visits to the indigent patients in their own

homes furnish the young physicians and the would-be physicians with very important information regarding their social conditions and home surroundings that may be contributory or causative factor of their diseases — something that cannot be visualized by merely looking after the care of patients in the wards and of those applying for treatment in our Free Dispensary. It may not be amiss to mention that in the performance of this domiciliary service, the poor community of the City of Manila is given free visits and free medicine. It is, therefore, recommended that, if possible, funds be provided for the resumption of this important branch of the hospital service.

37. The Experimental Ward should be revived. This has a relation with the solution of some of our medical problems. Nearly two years ago, this Experimental Ward was inaugurated, the object of which is the study of some of the prevalent diseases requiring certain further studies about their etiology, pathology, epidemiology and therapeusis. Of course, this kind of studies requires an additional expenditure of funds. Should the finances of the Central Administrative Organs improve, the resumption of this hospital activity is also recommended.

Respectfully submitted,

CLARO M. RECTO
Commissioner

Report and Recommendations of the National Education Board

NATIONAL EDUCATION BOARD
Manila

November 8, 1943

His Excellency
The President of the Republic of the Philippines
Manila

Sir:

The National Education Board has the honor to submit this first report on educational reforms. Other reports will be presented later. Brevity is observed, knowing as we do that the President, himself an educator, can readily decide upon the merits of each proposal. When the vote upon a proposition is two to one, the minority report is also submitted.

This report treats of (1) administration of private schools; (2) the qualifications of teachers in public and private schools; and (3) languages.

I. ADMINISTRATION OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS

1. A majority of the Board recommends that —

> Effective immediately, only a lay Filipino citizen may be the head of any school, college, or university, except when the charter or by-laws of the institution disqualify a lay person

As a rule, the head of an institution must be a Filipino citizen and must be a layman. An exception to the second requisite is made when the charter or by-laws of the institution disqualify a lay person.

The proposed reform aims to strengthen the spirit of nationalism in private education, and to enhance the separation of church and state. It is needless to elaborate upon these two objectives, for the lessons of Philippine history are manifest. Considering that the president, rector, or head of a school, college or university holds a tremendous sway over the student body and the faculty, the two qualifications above-mentioned are most urgent.

China, before the present war, established a policy similar to the one herein recommended. The principle of self-determination fully justifies this reform.

2. A corollary to the foregoing proposal is the following, which is unanimously recommended:

> Every head of a school, college, or university, must first obtain a teacher's license, but the examinations for that purpose may be dispensed with, in the discretion of the Minister of Education, Health, and Public Welfare.

3. It is further proposed that —

> Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-45, a majority of the governing board of every school, college or university shall be Filipino citizens.

The above reform is unanimously submitted, but one member of the Board believes the change should take effect one year after the termination of the war.

II. QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

1. The Board recommends that —

> All teachers in public and private schools (elementary and secondary) must first obtain a license after proper examinations. The good moral character of every applicant for a teacher's license must be vouched for by two responsible Filipino citizens not related to the applicant. No license shall be issued, unless the teacher satisfactorily proves that he or she sincerely believes in the educational policies of the State.

Persons belonging to most of the other professions (law, medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, engineering, accounting, etc.) are required to obtain a license or certificate from the Government before they can exercise their profession. In view of the vital significance of the education of the youth, there is no reason why teachers should be exempted from the same requirement. The examinations referred to should be rigid, and should be under the direct supervision of the Minister of Education, Health, and Public Welfare.

2. It is proposed that the following measure be taken:

> A code of professional ethics for teachers shall be promulgated by the Minister of Education, Health, and Public Welfare. Violation of the code will, after due hearing, cause the suspension or cancellation of the teacher's license. This code should include the conduct of school, college and university administrators.

The need for a code of ethics for members of the instructional, supervisory and administrative staffs of schools, colleges and universities is very obvious. Similar norms of conduct are now required in other profession. As moulders of the youths, the teaching profession all the more needs a code of ethics for its members. Such a code of ethics should be based on the relations of the teachers or of the school officials to the pupils, to the parents, to fellow members, to the community and to the nation. Such norms of ethical conduct may be determined by a survey and analysis of desirable and undesirable practices relative to these various relations now extant in the Philippines. Compliance with these standards should be required of all members of the profession now actually engaged in the practice of their calling as well as of others who may hereafter join the ranks of the teaching profession. Non-compliance with or violation of these ethical norms should be thoroughly investigated and administratively dealt with. Punishment of erring teachers and school officials violating the Code of Ethics of their profession is the surest guarantee for elevating the prestige of the members of the teaching profession under the Republic and for insuring the fulfillment of their mission as the militant advocates of national unity and solidarity.

3. It is likewise recommended that —

> Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-45, only (native-born) Filipino citizens may teach the national language, character education and the social sciences, in public and private schools, colleges, and universities.

In character education and in the social sciences, such as history, political science, civics, law, education, economics, and sociology, the teacher might undermine nationalism. Hence, the above requisite. The national language may best be taught by a Filipino.

4. The Board unanimously recommends that —

> Every teacher of religion in the public and private schools, colleges, and universities must at all times show that he or she believes in the educational policies of the State. This provision shall take effect at once.

5. A majority of the Board suggests that —

> Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-45, no priest, minister of the gospel, nun, sister of charity, or deaconess shall teach any subject in the elementary grades of any public or private school, except religion, music, drawing, and domestic science.

The above recommendation is calculated to implement the principle of separation of church and state.

III. LANGUAGES

1. The Board unanimously recommends:

> Nippongo shall be taught from Grade V up in all schools and colleges, public and private.

This proposal is made in view of the finding and experience that a foreign language is best taught and learned in the upper elementary grades. The proposal is also made in order not to complicate the language situation in the lower elementary grades where attention should be centered on the teaching of the national language.

2. It is also unanimously recommended:

> Effective immediately the national language shall be taught in all public and private high schools, colleges, and universities.

The object of this proposal is to make immediate use of the instructional material now available in our secondary and collegiate institutions on the teaching of the national language. As fast as similar material becomes available in the elementary grades, the national language should also be taught therein.

3. Accordingly, it is proposed by the Board:

> Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-45, the national language shall be taught in all elementary schools, public and private, and the training of national language teachers on a large scale should commence immediately.

4. The Board further recommends:

> All efforts should be exerted to accelerate the diffusion of the national language so that it may become the principal medium of instruction throughout the school and college courses as soon as practicable.

It is believed the immediate concern of the Government and of the educational institutions is the speedy propagation rather than the unnatural development, much less purification, of the national language. It is specially important to work out a basic vocabulary list of about 1,000 words which the Tagalog-speaking people now understand and actually use, whether these words are of purely native or of foreign origin. The spoken language gives life to any language.

Respectfully submitted,

JORGE BOCOBO
Chairman
FRANCISCO BENITEZ
Member
M. V. DE LOS REYES
Member

A true copy:
arb

MINORITY REPORT ON CERTAIN PROPOSALS BY THE NATIONAL EDUCATION BOARD

Objections to Proposal Nos. I (1) and II (5)

A majority of the Board recommends or suggests the following:

1. Effective immediately, only a lay Filipino citizen may be the head of any school, college or university, except when the charter or by-laws of the institution disqualify a lay person.
2. Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-45, no priest, minister of the gospel, nun, sister of charity, or deaconess shall teach any subject in the elementary grades of any public or private school, except religion, music, drawing, and domestic science. (No. II (5) recommendation in the majority report)

The two foregoing proposals are intended apparently to eliminate the foreign religious elements in administering Philippine schools, colleges, and universities or in teaching in such institutions, publc or private. It is believed this step would work hardship on many foreign religious educators who have spent the best years of their lives in the Philippines. The issue involved is not only educational but religious, international, and even racial. At this time when our young Republic has hardly started, the good-will and cooperation of all elements is essential for the healthy and progressive development of the new regime. The utmost care should be taken not to arouse any foreign, religious, or racial animosities. Many of these foreign and religious educators would be left stranded on our shores unable to avail themselves of the transportation facilities which in normal times could be easily arranged for their return to their native lands. It would be very unwise to resort to such a drastic measure. It is believed that in time, after proper negotiations with the Holy See, steps may be taken to Filipinize the high hierarchy of the Catholic Church. In the case of Protestant denominations, similar steps may also be taken to Filipinize the administrative and teaching staff of the institutions under them.

Amendment to Proposal No. I (3)

Proposal No. 3 which reads thus:

> Effective at the beginning of the school year 1944-45, a majority of the governing board of every school, college or university shall be Filipino citizens.

should be amended so that the effective date will be one year after the termination of the present war instead of at the beginning of the school year 1944-45. The present war has created many pressing problems. Institutions whose governing boards do not now consist of a majority of Filipinos are no exception to this situation. It is believed but reasonable to give these institutions sufficient time to adjust themselves to the present difficulties before enforcing the rule that the majority of the governing board in such institutions shall be Filipino citizens. The same reasons adduced in the preceding paragraphs may be also offered under this proposal.

Major and Basic Problems First

It is believed a number of the foregoing proposals deal with a few specific aspects of our national system of education. It is the humble opinion of the undersigned that far more fundamental problems especially those that concern public instruction should receive immediate attention. After all, the private schools and colleges form only a minor unit of our national system, the major unit being the public schools. It is believed that with promulgation or prescription of basic principles of education for the Republic and the laying out of a simple but efficient administrative machinery, these two problems, one concerning public instruction and the other private education, can be easily taken care of. With the basic principles as a guide and a simple but efficient administrative organization as a method of approach, the work of renovation of Philippine education under the Republic can be most expeditiously carried out. For this purpose, the accompanying tentative draft of an Executive Order on the Basic Principles of Education under the Republic is suggested. A draft of a proposed administrative organization will be submitted later.

Respectfully submitted,
/ M. V. De los Santos
Member, National Education Board

A true copy:
arb

NATIONAL EDUCATION BOARD
Manila

November 25, 1943

His Excellency
The President of the Republic of the Philippines
Malacañan, Manila

Sir:

The National Education Board unanimously recommends that:

1. Training of teachers for the State should be under a system separate from the Bureau of Public Instruction and the State University,

but under the Ministry possibly through another bureau or entity like the proposed Bureau of Educational Planning and Research.

2. All elementary school teachers should be trained by State Normal schools. No private organization or entity shall be allowed to operate any institution preparing teachers for the elementary schools.

3. The training of teachers for secondary schools and colleges, however, may continue to be undertaken by both public and private institutions subject to the regulation and supervision of the proposed Bureau of Educational Planning and Research, or both. In special fields like vocational education, and graduate studies in educational administration, supervision and research, private teacher-training institutions have done creditable pioneering work. It is believed with proper regulation and supervision, these institutions could be allowed to continue their work along these lines and leave to State institutions the task of preparing elementary teachers, teachers of the social sciences, the national language, and Nippongo.

4. There should be a State higher normal school in Manila which should train secondary teachers of the social studies, national language. and Nippongo. In the first four years, this higher normal school should devote its attention to a refresher course in the social studies with special reference to the new basic principles of education for graduates of normal school or colleges of education and teachers already in the service. It should also undertake the training of teachers of the National language and teachers of Nippongo.

In order to coordinate and unify the efforts of teacher training, it is proposed that this activity be placed under the direction and supervision of the Ministry rather than under the Bureau of Public Instruction and the State University. The State should see to it that the nationalistic and moral objectives of education under the Constitution of the Republic are attained. For this purpose the training of elementary teachers is limited to State normal schools. The training of secondary and collegiate teachers, however, except those of the social studies, national language, and Nippongo may continue to be undertaken by public and private institutions, subject to State regulation and supervision as indicated above. In view of the large number of teacher-trained graduates already available and the limited number of schools reopened, for the present and for the next few years attention should be focused on the re-orientation of these graduates and those already in the service as a result of the changed circumstances and the accompanying changes in the basic principles of education under the Republic.

Very respectfully,

JORGE BOCOBO
Chairman

FRANCISCO BENITEZ
Member

M. V. DE LOS SANTOS
Member and Acting Secretary

NATIONAL EDUCATION BOARD
Manila

November 29, 1943

His Excellency
The President of the Republic of the Philippines
Malacañan, Manila

Sir:

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION

The National Education Board has the honor to recommend the following administrative organization of education under the Republic:

Historical Background

Since the passage of Act No. 74 of the Philippine Commission in 1901, the public schools have always been under the Department of Public Instruction (now Ministry of Education, Health, and Public Welfare). At first directly under the Department, the public schools were later placed under a separate bureau. The control of private schools passed through a similar change. Education, health, and welfare have always been administered jointly under one department except from January to December, 1941, when a separate department of health and welfare was organized only to be fused again with education soon after the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War.

Proposed Organization

In addition to the promulgation of the basic prniciples of education under the Republic, it is important that a simple but efficient administrative machinery be set up to carry out not only the mandate of the Constitution on education but also the policies adopted by the Legislative and Executive Departments. For the sake of economy and simplicity, the present arrangement whereby education, health, and welfare are placed under the same administrative unit is believed satisfactory. Accordingly, it is proposed to keep intact under one and the same Ministry all bureaus and offices pertaining to education, health, and welfare. However, in order to give closer technical as well as administrative direction to the two branches of the Ministry, it may be well to provide two Vice-Ministers, one for education another for health and welfare. This proposed organization will continue to include the present bureaus and offices, except the University of the Philippines, whose separate existence under a special charter should be restored. This will be taken up in a separate report. In addition a separate Bureau of Educational Planning and Research should be organized.

The following organization diagram is submitted for consideration:

Minister
- Vice-Minister
  - Director, Bureau of Public Instruction
  - " " " Private Education
  - " " " Physical Education
  - " " " Educational Planning and Research
  - " National Library
  - " Institute of National Language

The functions of the different Bureaus pertaining directly to education may be summarized as follows:

Bureau of Public Instruction — To the Bureau of Public Instruction is committed the administration of the public school system and the supervision of the general school interests of the Philippines in so far as the same may be authorized by law. It shall also be charged with the conduct and management of all special schools supported from government funds.

Bureau of Private Education — This Bureau shall have the duty of maintaining a general standard of efficiency in all private schools and colleges of the Philippines whether or not they grant diplomas or confer degrees, so that the same shall furnish adequate instruction to the public, in accordance with the class and grade of instruction given therein, and for this purpose, it shall be authorized to supervise, inspect and regulate said schools and colleges in order to determine the efficiency of the instruction given in the same.

Bureau of Physical Education — It shall be the duty of this Bureau to encourage systematic physical exercise and education for all the people, to promote and improve athletic sports among amateurs, to diffuse the varied Filipino folk dances, to cultivate a liking for native sports, to establish and maintain a uniform test of amateur athletic championships, to organize and direct the training of athletes to represent the Philippines in international contests, and to encourage and promote the establishment of public playgrounds and recreational facilities.

Bureau of Educational Planning and Research — A separate Bureau is proposed to take charge of educational planning and research in order to coordinate and integrate all activities of the different educational agencies pertaining to objectives, materials and methods of instruction, supervision and administration. To this Bureau will be entrusted curriculum construction and textbook preparation for both public and private schools. In addition, this Bureau is to take charge of the certification of teachers and the administration of the proposed higher normal school designed to offer a refresher course for the re-orientation of all teachers and graduates of teacher-training institutions, public and private, seeking teaching positions. The functions of this Bureau may be summarized as follows:

It shall be the duty of this Bureau (a) to conduct studies and investigations on education and related branches; (b) to recommend changes in the objectives, materials, and methods of instruction, supervision, and administration; (c) to construct courses of study, prepare textbooks, and other graded material; (d) to coordinate the activities of the different educational agencies; (e) to bridge the gap between public and private education; and (f) to direct teacher training in all schools.

Regional Superintendencies

In addition to the proposal to coordinate the activities of all educational agencies and to bridge the gap between public and private education through the establishment of a Bureau of Educational Planning and Research, it is also proposed in the interest of economy and simplicity, compatible with efficiency, to do away with the present assignments of division superintendents in the different provinces and to designate in their places regional superintendents. These regional superintendents will have under their jurisdiction two or more provinces to comprise a region of approximately the same size as the former senatorial districts under the Jones Law. The purpose of this proposal is not only to simplify the administration of the schools but also to enhance the prestige of local school administrators and to foster educational leadership in the field. Such regional superintendents should be placed on about the same level as the assistant director of a bureau because they will be in fact assistant directors of education in their respective regions. They will be entrusted with the administration and supervision of public schools in their particular regions.

Strengthening the Principalship

It is further proposed that the position of the principal or head of each institution be strengthened by raising the requirements relative to cultural and professional training and by appointing in the service only the most capable and promising members of the profession. With a select body of regional superentendents and a competent staff of school principals or heads, most of the intermediate supervisory and administrative positions may be dispensed with, with the possible exception of supervisors of special subjects like Tagalog, Nippongo, music and other arts, and physical education. In this way, much of the overhead expense may be saved.

Very respectfully,

Jorge Bocobo
Chairman

Francisco Benitez
Member

M. V. De los Santos
Member and Acting Secretary

A true copy:
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NATIONAL EDUCATION BOARD
Manila

December 2, 1943

His Excellency
The President of the Republic of the Philippines
Malacañan, Manila

Sir:

PROPOSED SCHOOL CALENDAR FOR 1944-1945

The National Education Board has the honor to submit the following recommendations on the school term or calendar for 1944-1945:

Disadvantages of the Present Calendar

Presently the schools are run on a four-quarter-term basis. This, in effect, is a lengthened-school-year calendar providing for one week vacation between terms for pupils and students but no rest or vacation for teachers. This calendar was apparently intended as an emergency measure because the pupils and students who were in attendance during the school year 1941-42 and who were graduated or promoted into the next higher grade missed about three months of the year's work when the schools were closed upon the outbreak of the war on December 8, 1941. In most schools, the first term was used for make-up work, leaving the other three terms for the completion of the work for the regular school year.

The quarterly, 4-term, or lengthened-school-year calendar has been found to work hardship on both teachers and students, physically and mentally. This system does not provide for reflection nor for the cultural growth of the teachers and deprives the students of opportunities during vacation time to engage in such worthwhile extra-curricular activities as excursions, pilgrimages to historical and other places. It is believed the system also affects adversely the home life of the people and widens the gap between the school and society.

Proposed School Term or Calendar

In view of the foregoing, the quarterly, 4-term, or lengthened-school-year calendar should be abolished at the beginning of the school year 1944-1945. In its place should be adopted a school calendar ocnsisting of two terms, each of which should comprise at least 100 school days exclusive of Saturdays, Sundays, legal holidays and other vacation days; a week of inter-term vacation, another week of Christmas vacation, one week of Easter vacation and about six weeks of summer vacation. It is to be remembered that the pre-war calendar consisted of 180 days.

Very respectfully,

JORGE BOCOBO
Chairman

FRANCISCO BENITEZ
Member

M. V. DE LOS SANTOS
Member and Acting Secretary

Incl.: A summarized study on school terms

[INCLOSURE]

In different countries of the world the school term invariably provides for certain vacation periods ranging from a few weeks to several months. In the United States where the all-year school calendar has been tried out in some schools, provision is made for inter-term and summer vacations in addition to Saturdays, Sundays, and public holidays. Usually there is an inter-term vacation for closing the records of one term and preparing for enrollment in the next term, a recess during Christmas, another one at Easter, and a summer vacation of about twelve weeks. Even the all-year school calendar does not make it compulsory for pupils or teachers to attend all of the four terms, the fourth term being optional for pupils who may desire to shorten their stay in school or make up certain deficiencies. For teachers, only those who desire to serve are permitted to teach during the fourth term. Ordinarily, teachers are permitted to serve any three of the four terms.

In Japan the school year begins on April 1 and ends on March 31; divided into three terms; from April to August 31; September 1 to December 31; January 1 to March 31. Prefectural Governors are allowed to fix the allocation of holidays within the 90 days. Summer holidays total about one month; a forthnight is allowed at New Year, and about three weeks at the end of the school year. There are in addition some ten public holidays during the year, and of course all Sundays are free.

The total number of holidays, exclusive of Sundays, is not supposed to exceed ninety days. The Monbusho allows the Prefectural Governors to give pupils holidays up to 90 days in a year, besides Sundays.

The idea of an all-year school calendar is based on the assumption that all activities are for a whole year's duration and therefore educational activities should follow unit, but the tasks of studying and teaching are different from other tasks. What the children learn during the regular school year should be given a chance to be absorbed and become an integral part of their beings through a process of study and rest at certain intervals. Continuous study on the part of the pupils is not conducive to this desired absorption. Continuous teaching on the part of the teachers has the added disadvantage of affecting adversely the health not only of the bupils but also of the teachers, especially in a tropical country like the Philippines. Furthermore, the influence of the home and of society during the vacation period is reduced to a minimum in an all-year school term. But the contributions of the home and of society to the education of the youth are as important as the formal instruction that is received in school.

NATIONAL EDUCATION BOARD
Manila

December 3, 1943

His Excellency
The President of the Republic of the Philippines
Malacañan, Manila

Sir:

CREATION OF THE BUREAU OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

The National Education Board has the honor to recommend the creation of the Bureau of Social Education under the Ministry of Education, Health and Public Welfare. The primary objectives of this Bureau shall be as follows:

1. To eradicate illiteracy and provide citizenship training among the masses;

2. To provide broad cultural background, with emphasis on the valuable elements of our national culture, to the youth of the country between the ages of 14 and 21 years who, because of unfortunate circumstances or limited opportunities had been forced to stop their schooling before completing even elementary education;

3. To give vocational training that will enhance occupational efficiency of the citizens and contribute to the realization of the objective of economic self-sufficiency; and

4. To exercise supervision over associations and institutions other than the schools whose activities and functions are related to cultural life, such as the stage shows, radio programs, moving pictures, books and magazines for young people, etc.

The functions of the proposed Bureau of Social Education are different from those of our Bureau of Information and Public Security which is primarily concerned with the dissemination of accurate information aimed to develop intelligent public opinion and the promotion of peace and order. It continues on a broader foundation the work started by the former Office of Adult Education.

This Bureau is being recommended to be placed under the Ministry of Education, Health, and Public Welfare in order to coordinate the activities of all bureaus engaged in the education of our people; to simplify administration; and to secure the cooperation of other bureaus in the same Ministry, especially the Bureau of Public Instruction, with a view of making the school buildings and grounds the social center of the communities.

Pending legislative enactment and while there are no sufficient funds available, the work contemplated in this report can be initiated in a division in the Ministry of Education, Health, and Public Welfare. It is suggested that a weekly or a forthnightly publication in the Filipino language be issued and distributed at cost to the people in order to serve as medium for developing literacy, elevating cultural life, and improving vocational efficiency. In time, other materials necessary to carry out effectively the main purposes of the recommended Bureau should be prepared.

Very respectfully,

JORGE BOCOBO
Chairman

FRANCISCO BENITEZ
Member

M. V. DE LOS SANTOS
Member and Acting Secretary

A true copy:

LUPON SA PAMBANSANG PAGTUTURO
Manila

January 13, 1944

Your Excellency:
The President of the Republic of the Philippines
Manila

Your Excellency:

The National Education Board has the honor to submit the following recommendations relative to the reorganization of the secondary schools.

A. FOR THE DURATION OF THE WAR

1. Beginning June 1, 1944 and until the end of the present emergency, there should be organized at least one Emergency Farm School in every province and chartered city. Its main object shall be to increase food production, promote agricultural development and foster rural life. All public general high school and other types of secondary schools shall be converted into Emergency Farm School. After the initial appropriation necessary to organize the school, it shall be made self-supporting by charging reasonable fees.

2. During the same period, all private secondary schools for boys shall adopt the aims of the Emergency Farm School and shall prescribe agricultural subjects for vocational courses. Stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping and other clerical, secretarial or commercial course shall not be deemed as falling within this requirement.

B. POST-WAR REORGANIZATION

After the termination of the war, the system of secondary education shall be reorganized as follows:

1. General High School of 3 years shall be organized and adopted as the standard type of secondary schools in the Philippines in lieu of the academic secondary schools. It shall supersede all type of provincial high schools in existence before the war. Its primary aim shall be to promote agricultural, industrial and commercial development of the country and shall serve as a field for exploration of interests and ability of those who may desire to go to college or to more specialized vocations. It shall be established in every province and chartered city and shall be

supported by tuition fees or/and appropriation from the provincial or city government. The curriculum of the General High School shall consist of partly academic and partly vocational. Agricultural course shall be required in the provinces and industrial or commercial courses shall be prescribed in cities. Home economics shall be the vocational course for girls.

2. Superimposed on the General High School, there shall be organized college preparatory high school of three years, normal school of equal length, and vocational schools of two years in each of the field of agriculture, industry, commerce, seamanship and household industries. All these schools shall be organized in different regions at the expense of the National Government. The college preparatory high school may be established in other places at the expense of the branch of government that desires to establish it.

3. Schools of fisheries shall be established in strategic fishing banks of the country to teach the exploitation and conservation of the fish resources of the country.

4. The School of Fine Arts and the School of Music shall be organized in Manila, Baguio, Cebu, Davao or Zamboanga; farm schools in the isolated and scarcely populated districts; school of household industries in some agricultural regions, and evening continuation schools in the commercial and industrial centers of the country. They shall admit students who are elementary school graduates or with less qualifications.

Inclosed is a more detailed description of the proposed reorganization.

Very respectfully,

JORGE BOCOBO
Chairman

FRANCISCO BENITEZ
Member

M. V. DE LOS SANTOS
Member and Acting Secretary

Inc.: As stated

INDICTMENT AGAINST LT. GEN. MASAHARU HOMMA; ADDITIONAL SPECIFICATIONS

[NOTE: After the publication of the "Indictment against Lt. General Masaharu Homma" in the last issue of the HB, vol. XI, no. 3, pp. 304-315, our attention was called to five additional specifications to the charge against General Homma which were not included in the original charge. The following document which contains the additional specifications referred to is published as a supplement to the original document published in the previous issue. We owe it to Dr. Manuel Lim who served as a member of the prosecution panel of the Military Commission of the United States Army Forces, Western Pacific, which tried General Homma, for calling our attention to the additional specifications and for supplying us with a copy of the document. — *Editor*]

HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER ALLIED POWERS

Before the
MILITARY COMMISSION
convened by the
COMMANDING GENERAL
United States Army Forces,
Western Pacific

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

vs.

MASAHARU HOMMA

ADDITIONAL SPECIFICATIONS TO THE CHARGE

43. The brutal shooting on or about 10 December 1941 at Northern College, Vigan, Ilocos Sur, of Buenaventura BELIO, a Filipino, for his refusal to pull down the American and Filipino flags.

44. During April, May and June 1942, the brutal and cruel treatment of a work detail of more than 100 American prisoners of war sent to the Mountain Province, Luzon, Philippines, by overworking them; failing to provide adequate or proper food, clothing, quarters and medical care; beating and mistreating them; requiring them to carry Japanese weapons and ammunitions and engage in warfare against the guerrillas; as a result of which many of said prisoners of war died or were killed.

45. On or about 7 May 1942, at Malabang, Cotabato, Mindanao, Philippines, did execute Jose Abad SANTOS, a civilian, then the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Government of the Commonwealth of the Philippines.

46. Between 24 December 1941 and 15 August 1942, the wanton torture, cruelty and barbarous execution of Filipino civilians without cause or trial at San Beda College in the City of Manila, Philippines.

47. The widespread, cruel, barbarous and inhuman treatment, the torture and the killing of American and Filipino prisoners of war, American and Filipino civilians and internees and of nationals of various other nations.

Dated: 15 December 1945

/s/ Frank E. Meek
/t/ FRANK E. MEEK
Chief Prosecutor
Lt Col FA
Chief Prosecutor

AFFIDAVIT

Before me personally appeared the above-named accuser this 15 day of December 1945, and made oath that he is a person subject to military law and that he personally signed the foregoing additional specifications, and further that he has investigated the matters set forth in the additional specifications, and that they are true in fact, to the best of his knowledge and belief.

/s/ Manning D. Webster
/t/ MANNING D. WEBSTER
Captain, PAGD

The Gen. Emilio Aguinaldo National Centennial Commission

EXECUTIVE ORDER NO. 92 — CREATING THE GENERAL EMILIO AGUINALDO NATIONAL CENTENNIAL COMMISSION.

WHEREAS, the 22nd day of March of 1969 will be the centenary of the birth of GENERAL EMILIO AGUINALDO y FAMY, first President of the Philippine Republic and Generalissimo of the Revolutionary Forces against Spain and the United States of America from 1897 to 1901;

WHEREAS, the year 1969 also marks the seventeenth anniversary of the establishment of the short-lived Philippine Republic, the first representative and democratic government in Asia which was inaugurated in Malolos, Bulacan, on January 23, 1899;

WHEREAS, to Gen. Aguinaldo and his gallant men we owe the first solemn Proclamation of Philippine Independence from foreign rule which was publicly declared to the whole world in Kawit, Cavite, on the twelfth day of June 1898, said Proclamation having been ratified by the Revolutionary Congress assembled at Malolos, Bulacan, on September 29, 1898;

WHEREAS, to Gen. Aguinaldo and his patriotic band of freedom fighters we also owe our present national flag and anthem and the institution of the first democratic and republican form of government in Asia; and

WHEREAS, there is a need of perpetuating the heroic deeds, the sacrifices, the unquestioned patriotism, and the sublime idealism of Gen. Aguinaldo and the galaxy of heroes who made this nation great and noble at the close of the nineteenth century, including the documents of the First Philippine Republic;

NOW, THEREFORE, I, FERDINAND E. MARCOS, President of the Philippines, by virtue of the powers vested in me by law, in appreciation of the labors, sacrifices, loyalty, heroism, and patriotism of Gen. Aguinaldo, whose acts and deeds in behalf of our country and people deserve recognition, do hereby create a GEN. EMILIO AGUINALDO NATIONAL CENTENNIAL COMMISSION composed of the following:

Chairman: The Secretary of National Defense

Vice-Chairmen: Chairman, Senate Committee on National Defense
Chairman, House Committee on National Defense
Congressman for Cavite

Members: The Chairman, National Heroes Commission
President, Philippine Historical Association
Mr. Emilio Aguinaldo, Jr.
The Provincial Governor of Cavite
The Municipal Mayor of Kawit, Cavite
The Secretary of Finance
President, Asociación de los Veteranos de la Revolución
President, Philippine Veterans Legion
And three members appointed by the President representing cultural, educational, and civic organizations of the country.

The Commission shall have the following duties:

1. Prepare the general program of the Centenary and submit it to the President of the Philippines for his approval;
2. Promote and direct commemorative celebrations throughout the Philippines;
3. Collect, edit, and publish all the decrees, orders, laws, proclamations, and other writings of Gen. Aguinaldo and of the Revolutionary Government including that of the erstwhile Philippine Republic;
4. Erect a fitting and inspiring monument in honor of Gen. Aguinaldo in the Capital of the Philippines;
5. Conduct a nation-wide contest for the best biography of Gen. Aguinaldo which shall be published by the Commission;
6. Initiate and sponsor the holding of a three-day Congress or Convention in the Capital of the Philippines to evaluate the contributions of Gen. Aguinaldo to the building of the Filipino Nation;
7. Arrange for the issuance of commemorative stamps and medals for the centenary;
8. Hold a contest in painting and sculpture and music that shall appropriately and properly honor Gen. Aguinaldo;

9. Administer all funds donated to it by the public and the Government for the purposes of the Centenary; and
10. Take all other measures necessary for the successful execution of all the programs and activities adopted in celebration of the Centenary, including the conduct of fund drives.

The Commission shall report from time to time, but not less than once in six months, its activities and functions to the President of the Philippines who shall cause such report to be published for the information and guidance of the public.

All disbursements of the Commission shall be subject to audit by the Auditor General.

Done in the City of Manila, this 23rd day of October, in the year of Our Lord, nineteen hundred and sixty-seven.

(Sgd.) FERDINAND E. MARCOS
President of the Philippines

By the President:

(Sgd.) RAFAEL M. SALAS
Executive Secretary

Ambeth Ocampo

AMBETH R. OCAMPO